DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 048 976 52 RC 005 216

AUTHOR	Wall, James E.; Shill, James F.
TITLE	Expanding Vocational Education Curriculums to Meet the Needs of Disadvantaged Youth and Adults in Rural Areas. Institute IV, Final Report.
INSTITUTION	Mississippi State Univ., State College.; North Carolina State Univ., Raleigh.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.
BUREAU NO	BR-9-0472
PUB DATE	Dec 70
GRANT	OEG-0-9-430472-4133(725)
NOTE	260p.; Report on Institute IV of the National Inservice Training Multiple Institutes for Vocational and Related Personnel in Rural Areas, Mississippi State University, State College, Mississippi, July 20-31, 1970
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.65 HC-$9.87
DESCRIPTORS	*Adult Vocational Education, Curriculum Enrichment, *Economically Disadvantaged, *Program Improvement, Rural Areas, *Rural Youth, Social Mobility, Vocational Development, *Vocational Education

ABSTRACT

Institute IV of a series of training institutes for vocational and related personnel in rural areas focused on increasing the social mobility potential of disadvantaged rural youth and adults by providing opportunities for improving occupational entry and advancement. Specific objectives of the institute were to offer participants opportunities (1) to develop or improve abilities to define and identify needs of the rural disadvantaged; (2) to develop specific content and methods for use in training the rural disadvantaged; (3) to assess changes in attitudes toward work, aspirations, and self-esteem; and (4) to develop post-training procedures, structures, and relationships necessary for securing satisfactory occupational adjustment and advancement. Recommendations included that consideration be given (1) to obtaining or producing curriculum materials at reading levels commensurate to disadvantaged students' abilities, (2) to funding projects in which teachers of the disadvantaged and their students are utilized in developing and testing materials, and (3) to funding a project to study the sequential aspects of vocational-technical curriculum elements. Institute procedures and evaluation, a list of participants, and the texts of 17 presentations are included in the report. (JH)

ED048976

NCERD 9-0472
PA 52
RC

FINAL REPORT

Institute IV

Project No. 9-0472
Grant No. OEG-0-9-430472-4133(725)

RECEIVED
MAY 3 1971
NMSU
E.R.I.C.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEH REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

EXPANDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION CURRICULUMS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH AND ADULTS IN RURAL AREAS

Part of
National Inservice Training Multiple Institutes
for Vocational and Related Personnel
in Rural Areas

James E. Wall and James F. Shill
Mississippi State University
State College, Mississippi 39762

December, 1970

The Institute reported herein was performed pursuant to a grant to North Carolina State University by the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors and their sub-contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

RC005216

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
National Center for Educational Research and Development

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
SUMMARY		1
CHAPTER		
I.	INTRODUCTION	5
	The Problem	5
	Purposes of the Institute	5
	Objectives	5
II.	METHODS AND PROCEDURES	7
	Nomination and Selection of Participants	8
	Planning the Institute	8
	Conducting the Institute	8
	Introduction, Welcome, and Orientation	9
	Evaluation	9
	Summary of Plans of Action	11
	Presentations	
	"Relationship of Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 to Disadvantaged Populations" Barbara Kemp	15
	"Occupational Offerings, Relevancy and Quality of Training, and New Methods and Techniques for Job Development" Del Green	17
	"Strategies for Teaching Disadvantaged Youth" W. C. Boykin	25
	"Using Mathematics to Teach Self-Realization in Disadvantaged Children" William F. Johntz	33
	"Implications of Recent Research on Occupational and Educational Ambitions of Disadvantaged Rural Youth for Vocational Education" William P. Kuvlesky	41
	"Vocational Education and Community Development" Harold F. Kaufman	57
	"Development of Human Resources of Youth Through a Vocationally Oriented Educational Program for Disadvantaged Families in Depressed Areas" David Williams	67
	"Successful Innovative Techniques and Strategies in Programs for Training Disadvantaged Persons" Chrystine R. Shack	83

CHAPTER Page

II (continued)
"Integrated Career Development for Rural Areas"
Charles S. Winn 93

"Trends and Significant Differences in Indian Vocational Education"
John H. Peterson, Jr. 97

"Successful Indian Training Techniques and Strategies Used in the Roswell (N.M.) Employment Training Center"
Anthony F. Purley 109

"Possible Changes in Attitudes of Disadvantaged Workers Due to Positive Job Experiences"
Joe M. Blackbourn 115

"Industrial Arts for Disadvantaged Elementary Children" -- A Panel
Otis Allen, Chairman 125

"Rural Education Improvement Projects Sponsored by the Southern Association of Colleges & Schools"
John E. Codwell 131

"Vocational Development and Maturation"
Bert W. Westbrook 145

"Programs for the Hard-Core Unemployed and Potential School Dropouts"
Gene Bottoms 169

"Post-Training Occupational Behavior and Psychological Correlates"
Joseph E. Champagne 185

Banquet Speaker - Dr. Duane Nielsen 224

Sample Committee Report 225

III. REPORTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS 229
Reports 229
Conclusions 233
Recommendations 233
Institute Summary (Dr. Cayce Scarborough) 237

CHAPTER

Page

APPENDICES
A -- Institute Program 245
B -- Evaluation 249
C -- Task Force Discussion Outline 253
D -- List of Task Force Group Members 257
E -- Roster of Participants 261
F -- Brochure 271
G -- Evaluation Instrument 275

Table 1. Frequency Distribution and Mean Values for Participants' Evaluation of the Institute . 277

SUMMARY

GRANT NO.: OEG-0-9-430472-4133 (725)

TITLE: EXPANDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION CURRICULUMS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH AND ADULTS IN RURAL AREAS

PROJECT DIRECTORS: James E. Wall, Assistant Dean
College of Education

James F. Shill, Co-Director
Research Coordinating Unit

INSTITUTION: Mississippi State University
State College, Mississippi 39762

TRAINING PERIOD: July 20-31, 1970

Problem, Purposes, and Objectives

Certain areas of the United States contain concentrations of the disadvantaged, as in the large cities and metropolitan areas. However, many of the disadvantaged exist in rural areas. It has been stated that the rural areas have supplied the disadvantaged for the urban centers, and apparently will continue to replenish their numbers unless the problems of the disadvantaged are attacked at the source. Although the density would not be as great as in urban centers, there still are rural areas where the ratio between the "haves" and "have nots" is exceedingly unbalanced. The Appalachian Mountain area, Mississippi River Delta, and areas of the Southwestern U. S. are some examples of regions where heavy concentrations of rural disadvantaged exist. Their needs may be similar. How to upgrade their skills may vary in approach. Their major single commonality is that they are poor.

The disadvantaged have been defined and described in many ways. For purposes of this project, they will be briefly, albeit insufficiently, defined as: Persons who lack the necessary requisites for upward social mobility. It is subsumed that the improving of one's economic status will influence his social mobility potential. Similarly, improving one's occupational abilities will correspondingly improve his economic status by increasing his earning power. Vocational education programs for the disadvantaged should be focused on increasing their social mobility potential by providing opportunities for improving one's occupational entry and advancement. This Institute, therefore, was directed toward expanding and improving vocational education programs for disadvantaged youth and adults in rural areas.

Specific objectives of this Institute were to offer participants opportunities:

a. to develop and/or improve abilities to identify and define the needs of the rural disadvantaged; to develop criteria for categorizing or grouping for training; to discover

measures of aspiration levels, life styles; and to develop techniques and procedures for recruitment into and retention in training programs;

b. to develop specific content and methods for use in training the rural disadvantaged, to determine prerequisites to occupational training; to discover techniques for articulating elements of training content and methods; to determine techniques for pacing, phasing, and structuring instructional units according to trainee needs;

c. to assess changes in attitudes toward work, aspirations, self-esteem; to determine measures for job readiness and procedures for job entry; and

d. to develop post-training procedures, structures, and relationships necessary for securing satisfactory occupational adjustment and advancement, to determine procedures and measures which indicate need for retraining.

Procedures and Activities

A program planning committee was established and utilized in selecting the consultants and finalizing the Institute program. This committee began its function six months prior to the Institute and was utilized throughout the closing of the Institute.

To accomplish the purposes and objectives established, a variety of activities were utilized to increase the understandings and experiences of the participants. Activities included were: (1) formal lecture, (2) demonstrations, (3) informal talks, (4) field trips, (5) symposiums, (6) reaction and questioning panels, (7) large and small group discussions, (8) small Task Force Group assignments, and (9) individual assignments.

Conclusions and Recommendations

After analyzing participant satisfaction with the Institute, reviewing individual tentative plans of action, and reviewing Task Force reports, it was concluded that the Institute, entitled "Expanding Vocational Education Curriculums to Meet the Needs of Disadvantaged Youth and Adults in Rural Areas," was successful in accomplishing its major purpose, as viewed at this time. However, only a comprehensive follow-up of the extent of implementation of individual plans in the years ahead will give a true measure of the success attained by this Institute and the other six Institutes in the Rural Multiple Institute Program.

Recommendations evolving from the Institute include: (1) consideration be given to confining the duration of institutes to one week, (2) consideration be given to holding institutes in two phases (Phase I - training, and Phase II - reporting and redefining actions of participants after implementing individual plans); (3) consideration be given to continuing the practice of having participants prepare

tentative plans of action; (4) consideration be given to continuing small Task Force groups as effective learning devices; (5) consideration be given to conducting additional institutes on designing specific curriculums for the rural disadvantaged; (6) consideration be given to obtaining or producing curriculum materials at reading levels commensurate to disadvantaged students' abilities; (7) consideration be given to funding projects in which teachers of the disadvantaged and the disadvantaged students are utilized in developing and trying out materials; and (8) consideration be given to funding a project to study the sequential aspects of vocational-technical curriculum elements so that each year has been a good investment of student time in terms of socialization, self-reliance, and self-actualization, which is the opposite of traditional "delayed gratification" concepts.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Problem

There are an estimated 25 million American adults who are functionally illiterate, i.e., unable to read or write (communicate), or use numbers above the eighth grade level. There are equally as many, if not more, youths who exist in similar educationally disadvantaged situations. These persons have too few skills for earning an adequate living or enjoying a productive life.

Certain areas of the United States contain concentrations of the disadvantaged, as in the large cities and metropolitan areas. However, many of the disadvantaged exist in rural areas. For some years now, the rural areas have supplied the disadvantaged who migrate to the urban centers, and apparently rural areas will continue to replenish their numbers unless the problems of the disadvantaged are attacked at the source. Although the density would not be as great as in urban centers, there still are rural areas where the ratio between the "haves" and "have nots" is exceedingly unbalanced. The Appalachian Mountain area, Mississippi River Delta, and areas of the Southwestern U.S. are some examples of regions where heavy concentrations of rural disadvantaged exist. Their needs may be similar. How to upgrade their skills may vary in approach. Their major single commonality is that they are poor.

The disadvantaged have been defined and described in many ways. For purposes of this project, they will be briefly, albeit insufficiently, defined as: Persons who lack the necessary requisites for upward social mobility. It is subsumed that improving one's economic status will influence his social mobility potential. Similarly, improving one's occupational abilities will correspondingly improve his economic status by increasing his earning power. Vocational education programs for the disadvantaged should be focused on increasing their social mobility potential by providing opportunities for improving one's occupational entry and advancement. This Institute, therefore, is directed toward expanding and improving vocational education programs for disadvantaged youth and adults in rural areas.

Purposes of the Institute

This institute was designed to equip persons in vocational education leadership positions with the necessary knowledge and skills for expanding, developing, and improving curriculums to meet the needs of disadvantaged youth and adults in rural areas. Participants reviewed and discussed techniques and procedures that could be utilized in curriculum expansion.

Objectives of the Institute

Specific objectives of this Institute were to offer participants opportunities:

a. to develop and/or improve abilities to identify and define the needs of the rural disadvantaged; to develop criteria for categorizing or grouping for training, to discover

measures of aspiration levels, life styles; and to develop techniques and procedures for recruitment into and retention in training programs.

b. to develop specific content and methods for use in training the rural disadvantaged, to determine prerequisites to occupational training; to discover techniques for articulating elements of training content and methods; to determine techniques for pacing, phasing, and structuring instructional units according to trainee needs;

c. to assess changes in attitudes toward work, aspirations, self-esteem; to determine measures for job readiness and procedures for job entry; and

d. to develop post-training procedures, structures, and relationships necessary for securing satisfactory occupational adjustment and advancement, to determine procedures and measures which indicate need for retraining.

General Plan of Operation

The general operation of the Institute involved planning, conducting, and evaluating the two-week Institute held at Mississippi State University, July 20-31, 1970. The program was planned to expose participants to a variety of activities designed to achieve objectives of the Institute. Emphasis was placed on the process or procedural nature of developing mobility potential of disadvantaged youth and adults in rural areas.

Considerable time was devoted to small group sessions where participants were able to synthesize presentations made by consultants and to develop individual formats of plans for vocational educational programs for the rural disadvantaged. These formats contained such elements as sources and techniques of gathering data about the disadvantaged; instructional materials and methods of teaching various groups of the disadvantaged; and assessment and evaluation methods for determining success of programs.

One hundred participants were selected from among more than 150 applicants. A final count of 61 persons actually participated in the Institute. Late participant cancellations were heavy due to numerous reasons, such as: accidents, deaths of colleagues, work over-load, resignations, shifts in administrative positions, etc. All six persons selected as participants from Louisiana cancelled because of additional duties assigned to them in connection with that state serving as host to the annual American Vocational Association Convention in New Orleans.

II. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Nomination and Selection of Participants

The participant mix to be included in each institute was specified in the publication of the Organization and Administrative Studies Branch, Division of Comprehensive and Vocational Education Research, Bureau of Research, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, entitled Guidelines and Priorities for Short-Term Training Programs for Professional Personnel Development in Vocational and Technical Education, December, 1968. Thus, a major criterion for selection was that of achieving an appropriate mix of professional personnel from vocational and related fields at all governmental levels who were concerned with the problem area under consideration at each Institute.

The procedures to be followed in selecting the participants are as follows:

1. A brochure was prepared by the director and associate directors of the project describing the multiple institutes program and the individual Institutes. The brochure emphasized the content and desired outcomes for the Institutes.

2. The brochures were mailed, together with Institute application forms, to State Directors of Vocational Education, Directors of Research Coordinating Units, head teacher educators in vocational education, local directors of vocational education, and other persons and agencies that were included in the list of potential participants. These persons were requested to complete applications for institutes or to nominate persons for the Institutes.

3. The application form provided information regarding training, experience, interest in the Institutes, preferences for Institutes, a description of current job assignment which is relevant to the Institute for which the applicant is applying, and a statement to the effect that the applicant will be willing to undertake a project, program, or service to implement the models developed in the Institute.

4. The applications were evaluated on the basis of training, experience, potentiality for implementing the products of the Institute, and commitment to implementation.

5. Final selection of participants was based on the evaluation of the applications, with special attention given to identifying a team of vocational education and related personnel who would participate in each of the Institutes from the states that rank high in rural characteristics.

The selection procedures were conducted by multiple Institutes director and associate directors which resulted in providing each Institute director with a list of participants and alternates for his Institute. Upon receipt of this list, it became the responsibility of each director to invite the participants and to substitute appropriate alternates whenever necessary.

Planning the Institute

The program planning committee was organized and convened in early January, 1970, to assist with detailed planning for the Institute. The general objectives, topics, and procedures to be utilized were outlined in the Institute proposal. However, much work remained for the committee in modifying and delimiting original objectives, refining content, sequencing topics, selecting consultants, determining time allotments, and finalizing schedules.

The planning committee (See Appendix A for specimen of the Institute program, a list of the program planning committee members, and consultants) met at weekly intervals from January through March, and monthly until the Institute in July. The committee consisted of nine members including the Institute director and co-director. Materials were reviewed and selected by the committee, consultants selected, and logistics discussed at the meetings.

Conducting the Institute

A variety of activities were included to increase the understandings and experiences of participants. Included were formal lectures, demonstrations, informal talks, a field trip, symposiums, reaction and questioning panels, large and small group discussions, small Task Force group assignments, and individual assignments..

Emphasis was placed on Task Force group participation. Participants in the Institute were divided into six Task Force teams (see Appendix D for list of Task Force Groups) maximizing heterogeneity in terms of level and type of professional involvement in vocational education activities and regional distribution. Task Force leaders were appointed to give direction to Task Force and individual assignments. Each Task Force team engaged in discussions aimed toward the development of strategies and guidelines which could be employed in implementing vocational programs for the rural disadvantaged. (See Appendix C for Task Force Discussion Outline.)

Each consultant was to prepare a formal paper in advance which was duplicated and made available to participants following its presentation. Most consultants were in attendance a minimum of three days and some for one week. In addition to their formal presentations, the consultants were available as resource persons to the Task Force groups and individual participants.

After each day's activities, meetings of the Institute staff, consultants, and group leaders were held to obtain feedback and make any changes deemed necessary. (Refer to Appendix A for a specimen of the Institute program which refers to topics and presenters.)

Format sessions and small Task Force meetings were held in Dorman Hall. All participants and most consultants were housed in a modern campus dormitory. A banquet was held in the University Union at the close of the Institute.

Introduction, Welcome, and Orientation

The Institute was begun on Monday morning with a welcoming coffee and registration, at which time the participants were provided with packets including identification tags, lists of participants, and consultants, and an assortment of materials about the Institute, the University, and the State.

A formal welcome to the University was given by Dr. W. L. Giles, president of Mississippi State University. He spoke briefly concerning the importance of the Institute and the keen interest in the undertaking that the University had exhibited over the past several years.

An orientation to the overall Multiple Institutes Program was presented by Dr. Charles H. Rogers, Multiple Institutes Coordinator, North Carolina State University. He spoke briefly concerning the impact the Institutes were having and how each participant could increase the effectiveness of this particular Institute.

The Institute director reviewed the purposes and objectives of the Institute, discussed the two-week-long program and its anticipated outcomes, and covered logistical and operational procedures. Assignments were made to Task Force groups and participants met in the groups for the purpose of establishing rapport and defining the Task Force assignments.

Evaluation

In addition to the evaluation reported here, the Center for Occupational Education at North Carolina State has conducted a more extensive evaluation of the entire Multiple Institutes Program which is contained in the National Inservice Training Multiple Institutes for Vocational and Related Personnel in Rural Areas: Final Report. The procedures utilized in the evaluation are depicted in Appendix B.

Most of the evidence reported in this section was gathered on a post-test instrument in which one part (Form 3) was specifically designed for the purpose of evaluating the Institute. Other favorable reactions from the participants have been received by the Institute staff in the form of verbal and written communications, but will not be reported here. See Table 1 for a summary of participants' responses to Form 3.

A summary of Form 3 (see Appendix G) is as follows: Of the 61 participants receiving stipends, 53 submitted the evaluation forms. Form 3 consisted of 33 statements and questions about the Institute. The first 24 statements allowed the participants to register their degree of satisfaction with the Institute on a five-point Likert type scale. Of the 24 statements, 11 were stated in positive terms, and 13 in negative terms. Four of the remaining nine questions requested "yes" or "no" responses from the participants and in some questions they were requested to elaborate on their responses. The remaining five questions allowed the respondents the opportunity to elaborate on different phases of the effectiveness of the Institute.

For the sake of simplicity, the summary of the participants' responses from the rating scale on the first 24 questions are presented in Table 1. The reader is urged to study the distribution of responses as well as the mean for each of the statements and to develop his own interpretation of the effectiveness of the Institute.

Participants generally indicated agreement with all the positive statements (1,3,6,10-13,16-18, and 23) and disagreement with all the negative statements (2,4,5,7-9,14,15,19-22, and 24) as shown in Table 1. The general tendency for participants to agree with the positive evaluative statements and their tendency to disagree with the negative statements tends to suggest a relatively high degree of satisfaction with the total program.

Another indication of success of the Institute was that over 98 percent of the participants reported that, as a result of their participation, they would modify their present work to serve the disadvantaged populations better. Some of the more specific changes repeatedly planned by the participants could be grouped as follows:

A. Teaching Personnel
- changes in teaching methodology, course content, and program planning.
- more emphasis to be placed on recruiting the disadvantaged into their vocational classes.
- more emphasis to be placed on counseling.
- implementation of more individualized instruction and team teaching and planning.

B. Local and State Administrators
- modification of the general education program to aid vocational education in serving the disadvantaged.
- place emphasis on the disadvantaged in elementary grades.
- re-assess planning of programs for the disadvantaged.
- involve total school system faculty in serving the disadvantaged student.
- redefining educational program priorities.

C. Teacher Educators
- revise pre-service and in-service programs to better prepare teachers to work with disadvantaged populations.
- development of special curriculum materials for disadvantaged populations.

Indications were that approximately three-fourths of the participants planned to continue exchanging information on the disadvantaged with at least some of the participants and/or consultants they made contact with at the Institute. Working materials such as course outlines, curriculum materials, and program designs were most often indicated as items they were going to exchange and keep in contact about.

Most participants reported that they felt the objectives of the Institute were attained to a high degree. Only one participant indicated that the objectives had not been met, and a few failed to respond to the question or answered in such a way as not to commit themselves. Many participants reported the major strengths of the Institute as being:

- The organization of the Institute program;
- The caliber and range of consultants utilized;
- Sufficient time for group participation in small and large groups;
- Field trip;
- Opportunity for reactions to consultants; and
- Stimulation of participants.

The major weaknesses of the Institute as reported by the participants were as follows:

- Two-week period is too long for an institute;
- Should have more planned socials;
- Some consultants were "salesmen";
- More involvement of disadvantaged persons in the Institute;
- Not enough confrontations between participants; and
- Lack of representation from some states.

Summary of Plans of Action

Each of the participants in the Institute was expected to develop a tentative "plan of action" statement of intent to be incorporated into his current work assignment. Most participants returned individual plans of action. However, a few participants whose colleagues were also in attendance submitted joint "plans of action." Because of the extremely wide diversity of the plans, the discussion of them here will be general in nature.

Most of the plans of action included an analysis of the present situation in which the participants were working, with special emphasis on areas they were working with and/or could work with concerning disadvantaged populations. Most plans indicated that at least some efforts will be made by them individually to serve disadvantaged populations more effectively.

All plans submitted by the participants included procedures, techniques,and structures which would be utilized by them in increasing their services to disadvantaged populations. As expected, procedures, techniques, and structures varied according to their current positions. Teacher educators', and to a lesser degree, many state and local administrators' plans emphasized increased services to disadvantaged populations through training, and assisting other persons who actually work with the disadvantaged. On the other hand, vocational teachers' and counselors' plans emphasized the "grass roots" procedures and techniques for effective implementation and conduct of programs for the rural disadvantaged.

Relationship of Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 to Disadvantaged Populations

(An abstract of a Presentation by Barbara H. Kemp *)

Miss Kemp began her talk by reiterating the provisions of the 1963 Vocational Education Act and the 1968 Vocational Education Amendments which dealt with the disadvantaged. The Amendments of 1968 defined the disadvantaged as follows:

> Persons (other than handicapped persons defined in Section 108(6) who have academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in regular vocational education programs.[1]

She explained that the Amendments provided for not less than 15 percent of each state's allotted federal funds for Vocational Education, which is in excess of its base allotment, to be utilized for programs for the disadvantaged. These Amendments were designed to focus on the major deficiencies of the past, and therefore place special attention on training the disadvantaged.

Miss Kemp briefly reviewed some of the highlights of her publication, The Youth We Haven't Served. She pointed out that some degree of flexibility must be employed in identifying, categorizing, and recruiting students for the programs for the disadvantaged. She also pointed out that children of poor families of low social status are often rejected by the adult world and therefore find it very difficult to become productive citizens.

Some of the adverse conditions with which many of the disadvantaged persons have to contend were discussed. These conditions are as follows: (1) overcrowded homes, (2) a tendency for the individual to stay within their immediate environment, (3) no real adult model with whom they can identify, (4) the lack of such things as books, instructional toys, pencils, and paper, as well as the inability of someone at home to explain their use, (5) a slum environment, (6) lack of youth organizations, (7) lack of adequate occupational education to meet their needs for finding an adequate job, (8) lack of encouragement from parents, and (9) a history of failure in school.

Miss Kemp further pointed out that because disadvantaged persons have been accustomed to failure, they therefore must have something offered to them at which they can become successful. To many disadvantaged persons, being enrolled in a class especially designed for

---

* Miss Kemp is Senior Program Officer, U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

[1] Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, 90th Congress, 2nd Session, H.R. 18366, p.10.

those who could not succeed in regular class is self-defeating. These students enter the program with a negative attitude concerning the program and due to criticism from their peers, they sometimes become disinterested and drop out.

The disadvantaged person generally does not read well; therefore cannot understand and master subject matter which requires reading. They have failed to master such other basic subjects as mathematics, writing, and English; therefore, they become lost when they try high school or even junior high school subjects. These problems cause the disadvantaged students to become unmotivated and to become potential dropouts.

Miss Kemp stated that every possible effort must be made to reach these students. The schools should use all available media and methods of instruction to try and give these students the education they must have to be successful in a rapidly changing society. There should be special emphasis placed on providing attractive productive, and challenging programs for this population.

16

OCCUPATIONAL OFFERINGS, RELEVANCE AND QUALITY OF TRAINING NEW METHODS AND TECHNIQUES FOR JOB DEVELOPMENT

Del Green*

Much of the real significance of the present unemployment rate has escaped the general public. More people have more jobs and are making more money than ever before. Yet, during this current period of what can be classified as a "mini-recession," the national unemployment rate is higher than it has been in several years. The national unemployment rate fails to reflect the situation at the state, county, and local levels.

In the United States there is an abundance of poverty, underemployment and unemployment, especially in rural areas. We can attribute this paradox in part to the advent of technology and automation. Underemployment and unemployment are major problems in rural America. The rate of unemployment nationally is presently above five percent. The rate in rural areas averages about 18 percent. Among farm workers, a recent study discovered that unemployment runs as high as 37 percent.

As we analyze the present unemployment rate, it tells us production has decreased, consumer purchases are below last year's level at this time, and additional unemployment has occurred. Just recently the President's economic advisor revealed to the American public that our economy is on the upswing. That means production will increase; there will be more consumer purchases, and more employment. He has predicted also that the unemployment rate will decrease much faster than it increased.

On April 20, 1970, the Bureau of Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, released the following statistical report on where jobs will open up fastest:

Job Areas	1969	1980	Percent Change
Government	12,200,000	16,600,000	+ 36
Services	15,700,000	20,900,000	+ 33
Construction	4,200,000	5,400,000	+ 29
Retail & Whlse. Trade	17,200,000	20,300,000	+ 18
Finance, Ins., Real Est.	3,900,000	4,600,000	+ 18
Manufacturing	20,400,000	22,100,000	+ 88
Transp. & Utilities	4,600,000	4,900,000	+ 7
Mining	660,000	580,000	- 12
Farming	4,000,000	3,200,000	- 20
Total Jobs in U. S.	82,860,000	98,580,000	+ 19

* Mr. Green is Executive Vice President, Roy Littlejohn Associates, Inc., Washington, D. C.

If these figures are accepted as reliable, then it means when we employ the 5 percent which are presently unemployed, we must be prepared to place 14 percent more employees in the labor market in both the public and private sector before the end of this decade. What also is significant is what is predicted to happen in rural areas. Eighty thousand miners will need other jobs and 800,000 farmers will need other jobs. When we look at the predicted total labor force in 1980 compared to the total figure of 1969, we see 15,720,000 persons required to meet the needs of the labor market by 1980.

This places a great responsibility on our institutions to begin now to prepare our youth and adults from both urban and rural settings for future placement in the labor market.

It would indeed be wise, upon your return to your respective states, to get together with the State Human Resources Development Offices to determine skill categories identified for utilization and numbers of persons needed in each category to augment the present labor force.

It is my opinion that rural America will be seriously affected by this trend in employment. Outmigration will continue from rural areas to urban centers without a significant change in numbers because of unemployment, along with other factors. The disadvantaged youth and adults would be much better off if they should leave with employable skills. Therefore, they would benefit from vocational and technical training before outmigration.

The types of vocational and technical training offered should be compatible to both the urban and rural labor market if there is expectancy of outmigration. There should be reasonable expectation of employment after training is completed in either setting.

Based upon the U. S. Department of Labor statistics presented, the federal governement will employ the largest number of the new labor force. Areas for expanding or improving curricula might be, to mention a few:

(1) Ecology -- The cleaning up of our polluted environments will require a variety of technicians that will be employed in urban and rural areas.
(2) Health Services -- Public Health services will require a variety of paraprofessionals and technicians to meet the ever-increasing demand caused by the doctor shortage.
(3) Key Punching and Computer Services -- More and more the federal government is relying upon the computers to collect and retrieve data.

The construction industry is showing a continual growth pattern. New techniques and methods are being employed to develop low-and moderate-income housing. A wood styrofoam product has been successfully developed and tested. Mass production is soon to begin and numerous laminators will be required.

Manufacturing shows an 8 percent increase and the basic trade skills seem to require minimum change, if any.

The demand for timber and wood products will continue to be extremely high in this decade. There will be job offerings as log graders, cat skinner, machine operators, tree fallers, etc.

Relevancy and Quality of Training

Until it is realized that employment is only one facet of our human problems and that to improve the quality of life of the American disadvantaged will require a comprehensive effort, we shall continue to fail in providing permanent employment for the disadvantaged. Employers must be given sensitivity training to understand the disadvantaged. The employed disadvantaged must be provided counseling after employment to understand what the employer expects of them as employees. The disadvantaged employees must be provided with a variety of supportive services. In addition to this, I can see no way possible to solve the problems of education and employment without linking them together with programs in housing, transportation, and economic development.

The MDTA program, in my opinion, has been severely abused at the local level. So often has the local employment service failed to correctly understand its duties and responsibilities to the American people. I have personally witnessed in several states the development of job slots for training and employment that have no relevancy. Yet, State Departments of Vocational Education have developed curricula based upon information furnished by the State Employment Service without questioning the relevancy of training. In one instance, in a southern county, the local employment service, to support an institution of higher learning, came up with 20 job slots for meat processors, 10 upholsterers, 20 nurses aides, and 20 clerk typists, based upon their findings of labor market needs in the area. There were only 4 supermarkets in the county and no packing houses. There were two furniture repair shops and no furniture manufacturers. There was only the VA Hospital in the county and no other medical facility other than the infirmary at the local college. The VA Hospital was cutting back all staff, including nurses aides. There was no opportunity to place clerk typists as there was a surplus of clerk typists in the unemployed labor pool.

The certified need for training was signed off by the local employment service and the State Department of Vocational Education developed the training curriculum. The program was subsequently funded and implemented, and enrollees were trained. At the end of the training period, 90 percent of the enrollees remained unemployed. Can you imagine the image of the establishment and the institution of higher learning at the local level when the events of this activity became widely publicized and known? This should not have happened and cannot happen if training programs are to have any creditability. Training programs can be classified as successful only when its enrollees become gainfully employed. There simply must be an opportunity at the end of training for upward mobility.

The quality of training should be geared to account for individual differences. Tutorial service should be provided, if required,on a one-to-one basis. Training for skills and adult basic education should be offered at the individual's level of comprehension. Take the fat out of the training programs. The Department of Defense has conclusively proven what can be done with the disadvantaged in time-constrained vocational and technical training with almost 100 percent effectiveness.

Once we identify the labor market needs and our human resources to fulfill these needs, we can then intelligently and sensibly discuss a plan of action to bring them together for productive purposes.

The local employment service has the duty and responsibility of identifying the needs of the labor market. It should be able to state at any point in time what the labor market is and at the same time project future needs. This entails keeping in touch with local commercial and industrial enterprises to determine the skill categories required and numbers of job offerings. The local employment service is also responsible for analyzing collected data to identify the need for vocational and technical education among the underemployed and the unemployed. Yet, because of the staff shortages and other reasons, it is far behind in discharging its obligations.

There is no creativity, imagination, or innovation within the present structure and catalytic pressures must be brought to bear from the private sector if it is going to change and provide the type of service our changing society is so desperately in need of.

There is presently a challenging opportunity to work independently of the local employment service in the private sector with industry, either directly or indirectly through community organizations, or in job development and placement. First-hand information on the manpower labor needs can be obtained and utilized to determine job opportunities and identification can be made of the idle labor force, with its present skills. At the same time, we can determine the type of training necessary to prepare the idle labor force for employment. Employers are not reluctant to sign commitments for employment in skill categories which guarantees placement of individuals with entry-level skills.

In many situations local communities vis-a-vis community organizations are assuming the responsibility of job development and placement independently. Where there is an opportunity to provide vocational and technical training through the local school system, the community and the local school system work together. The community will identify a trainee and guarantee employment after successful completion of a prescribed training course. The school system will enroll the trainee and develop entry-level skills specified by the employer.

Automation and technology are constantly identifying new vistas for training--attempting to match the human resources available with the natural resources and discover new methods and techniques to train and place the idle labor force. These are not impossible tasks and require only imagination, creativity, and innovation. If you are going to

attempt to expand vocational and technical curricula, you would need to train present professionals in how to be creative, imaginative, and innovative. These professionals could then spearhead the offensive in curriculum expansion through their training and experience.

As individuals, we seem to get locked into a system that focuses upon a single system which in turn destroys our peripheral vision. Someone must continually conceptualize new approaches to identify new job opportunities. Then we must through experimentation and demonstration prove the validity of our concepts. It is only through this type of effort that we will be able to overcome our employment dilemma. You must maintain a positive attitude at all times. Accomplish the impossible today and the miraculous tomorrow. Tomorrow in the sense that it becomes the day after, and not infinite. What is also most important is that you become objective-oriented, not problem-oriented. A problem-oriented person identifies problems and measures the success of possibly achieving the objective in terms of foreseen problems to be encountered. He asks himself, "Is it worth it? Is there any hope for success?" He is most likely to make a decision based upon an acceptable criteria of evaluation in the subjective. The objective-oriented person understands he will encounter a variety of problems that pose as obstacles in the achievement of his objectives and knowingly proceeds and at the same time develops strategies and alternate strategies to resolve the foreseeable problems. He is also prepared to deal with the unforeseeable problems. He is the person that will say, "Damn the torpedoes and full speed ahead." In my book he is a winner and will make constructive things happen. He is a rare breed and difficult to readily identify and is a born leader. I venture to say he can also be classified as a con-man. These character assets make him a locksmith and enable him to unlock doors that may have been closed for decades. We can depend upon him to accomplish both the impossible and miraculous with the least possible delay.

It is not an easy task to undertake, identifying the under-employed and unemployed in rural America. It is reported that the U. S. Census Bureau, for the first time, in 1970 identified a large rural family that had lived in the same dwelling for five generations.

Outreach capability must be developed and utilized to identify and assist, even through referrals, individuals in the most remote places. Each potential employee must be identified no matter what the resultant action may be.

You may say to yourself, this can be a costly endeavor in terms of time spent and the dollar-and-cent figure. Where will the funds come from to accomplish the task? Funds are available to do just this. The U. S. Department of Commerce, EDA, has funded numerous municipalities and counties to identify its idle labor force and employer needs. The condition for funding is that you match up the needs of the labor market with the idle labor force, whenever possible. If matching becomes impossible, then you must determine skill categories for the purpose of vocational and technical training to bring about a balance. Private foundations such as the Ford Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Carnegie Foundation, the Kellogg Foundation, to

mention a few, have freely provided grants to non-profit organizations in rural areas. Also, for this purpose, where there is an acute labor shortage, private industry has done the same to augment or replinish its labor force. What I am saying is, there is absolutely no excuse for not being able to identify the idle labor force in a given area.

New Methods and Techniques for Job Development

Let me at this time share with you examples of innovative approaches to vocational and technical training and subsequent employment in rural areas.

The Community Action Migrant Program funded by OEO for job development, training, and placement is providing service to nine Florida counties. It encourages migrants to leave the stream. Full-time staff daily canvasses industry to develop jobs. When employment opportunities are identified, the job developers secure from the employer a commitment for employment based upon his criteria. The program outreach workers identify migrants in the stream who have expressed a desire to be trained for permanent employment. The migrant is then trained as quickly as possible, then is placed. During training, stipends are paid and the enrollee and his family are provided full supportive services. Job offerings come from Chris Craft, General Motors, Volkswagon, from a host of hotels and motor inns for cooks, bakers, and pantrymen, commercial fishing industry, canneries, and others. You may ask what is so different about this program? The answer is: It is doing the job the state employment service has failed to do, and with success. Migrants are provided an opportunity to leave the stream and improve their life styles. The program proudly boasts 100 percent placement after training and less than a 5 percent attrition rate.

They conceptualized an ocean farming (fishing) program. They trained 20 migrants to become commercial fishermen. The acquired a 60-foot GSA surplus boat and converted it into a commercial fishing boat and are now in business for themselves with an equitable profit-sharing plan.

In this example, which I consider their most successful program, I would like to carry you through four steps: (1) conceptualization, (2) program development, (3) implementation, and (4) operation or administration. The staff members of the Community Action Migrant Program in its many visits to farm labor camps recognized the need for low-income housing. They knew that the growers would oppose this type of program, because it would ultimately destroy their captive labor force. Yet, diligently and quietly they sat in meetings to discuss ways and means, also pros and cons of the proposed program. Only when the component parts of the program were agreed upon did the idea come to fruition. The next phase was to develop a definitive program. They assembled representatives from every agency, civic organization and local community to present a prospectus and enlisted their support. I need not mention the numerous political, social, and economic problems they encountered. Eventually all problems were resolved and the program received unanimous support from all representatives. The

proposal was developed jointly by all concerned and each contributor had a propietory interest. It was submitted to HUD for funding and they received a $15 million dollar grant.

Implementing the program was relatively easy, as they had previously identified both professional and nonprofessional staff for employment. Theity days after the grant was received, the program was operational.

The general contractor selected had to agree to utilize local manpower for construction. He had to work out with the unions certain apprenticeship programs for minority persons. What really happened was that low-income houses were built and occupied; underemployed and unemployed persons were trained and provided skills to become employed, and with skills which the buildingtrades would continue to need in other developments in the immediate future. The economy of the community improved because of the cash turnover.

This is what imagination, creativity and innovation can do.

The Wood Industry Program was conceptualized at an inter-agency private industry meeting in Washington. It was designed to provide the U. S. Forest Service with manpower to preserve and maintain our national forests, and at the same time utilize the national forests for work experience during training.

First, you identify a steering committee comprised of: local employment service representative, U.S.D.A. National Forest representative, State Vocational Education representative, local institution of higher learning representative and representatives from the local community. The employment service representative will identify skill categories needed by the labor market, the U. S. National Forest representative will then be responsible to develop the work experience program in the forest. The State Vocational Education representative will develop appropriate training curricula. The institution of higher learning, with the community, will jointly sponsor the program.

Stipends are paid to trainees and supportive services are provided during the training period. Funding is jointly provided by the Departments of Labor, HEW, and OEO.

Thus far, Tuskegee Institute has been funded. Black Hills State College, Spearfish, S. D.; Alcorn A & M College, Mississippi; El Dorado Junior College, Placerville, California; and the Rogue River Basin Project, Salem, Oregon are pending.

Still another project was the Lazy Susan, sponsored and developed at Tennessee State University, Nashville, Tennessee. This project made an assessment of the labor needs of mama-papa stores in multi-county areas. It also identified the idle labor force in the area. Then it matched skills where possible in the labor needs and through

training developed additional employable skills until all labor needs in the area were filled.

The MT-1 was developed by the Tennessee State HRD and the MT-2 by the State Vocational Education Agency. Other projects in the process of development are:

1. The development of charcoal using mesquite in the Southwest. Training will be required in production, administration, and marketing.
2. Clay products manufactured in a rural area to be sold at wholesale prices to hotels and motels.

24

STRATEGIES FOR WORKING WITH THE DISADVANTAGED

William C. Boykin, Sr. *

The Problem in Historical Perspective

This history of the development of education in the United States reflects a growing concern for a commitment to universal education. Educational pioneers in this country were not long in discovering that mass education works best in a homogeneous society--a society in which students are of the same social class, from the same ethnic group, from the same side of the railroad tracks, a society of students whose abilities are similar and whose appetites and motivations for learning are derived from a common base. In this kind of Utopian atmosphere, a single program of studies could be prescribed for all students; the same level of academic achievement could be expected; methods of teaching would work equally well for all, and; since all students would be college-bound, counseling would not really be a necessity. In such blissful milieu, nobody would picket for "relevancy" in education. Everybody would be satisfied, or complacent, that the fathers of education know what is best. There would be no black to "rub off" on white and no whites to be taunted with "black is beautiful."

Only the naive will believe that these conditions have ever existed in this melting pot which we call America. Yet, educators proceeded for over two centuries in this country as if they believed, or wished, that conditions were thus. We, as astute educational practitioners, know full well that these are not the conditions under which we must design and implement educational programs. We know that we do, in fact, have students of varying ethnic origins; students who differ in their orientations toward life; students who differ in their appetites and motivations for learning, and; students who differ in a myriad of other human variables. Because of this heterogeneity, our commitment to universality has impelled us inexorably toward comprehensiveness in education--education tailor-made to the needs and aspirations of all in our society. Today we know that our educational programs for the plumber must be, comparatively, just as excellent as that for the philosopher, else neither our plumbing nor our philosophy will hold water.

It is axiomatic that, under a system of mass education, a greater level of heterogeneity among students will occur. Logically, then, we expect an increasingly larger number of our students to be disadvantaged. Since this institute is conducted to foster better understanding of the disadvantaged, it is important that we define the persons of whom we talk so glibly.

---

* Dr. Boykin is the former head teacher educator in Agriculture at Alcorn A & M College, Lorman, Mississippi. He is presently on leave from this position to direct the Institutional Research: Self-Study program at Alcorn A & M.

> "The terms 'high-risk,' 'marginal,''educationally disadvantaged,' 'academically unsuccessful,' and the like are used interchangeably to specify students whose erratic high school records, economic plight, unimpressive standardized test scores, and race/cultural/class distinctions succeed in placing them at a disadvantage in contention with the vast majority of students applying for entry into college. The students appear to have little prognosis for success. Yet, many of them possess those intangible qualities of creativity, personality, and tenacity which counteract the customary indicators of academic prowess."[1]

Though Moore is referring in this context to Junior College admission policies, his definition holds considerable validity for the students about whom we are concerned in this institute.

The United States Congress further defined the disadvantaged in 1963.

> "Vocational education for persons who have academic, socio-economic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education program." (the culturally and environmentally handicapped)
>
> "Vocational education for handicapped persons who because of their handicapping conditions cannot succeed in the regular vocational educational program without special instructional assistance or who require a modified vocational program." (mentally retarded, physically handicapped)[2]

These students have come to be described, in common parlance, as the "hard to teach and the hard to reach." They are of many kinds, namely: The mentally incompetent from birth; the academically retarded, but not necessarily mentally inept. There are those who lack a sufficient appetite for learning; there are the crippled, the lame and the maimed; and let's not forget--regretfully, there are those who are like the farmer's proverbial "old gray mule"!!! All of these students are at a disadvantage. They tend to be shunted aside by society. The schools, as a society, are hardly an exception. The problem is not finding ways to sift out the so-called uneducables, but rather to find ways to include them in the educational orbit.

A Point of Reference

These handicaps refuse to respect artificial boundaries of race or man-made geographical lines. Therefore, no section of this country is immune to nor has a monopoly on the disadvantaged. They will be found in the pockets, but they refuse to remain there. Some pockets of poverty are large, others small. They are the Ozarks, Appalachia, the Mississippi-, Louisiana-, Arkansas- and Missouri-Deltas; they are Indian Reservations and; they are the city ghettos. The pockets of poverty tend to be most severe where there are considerable minority ethnic group concentrations.

The fact of poverty in an age and in a country of considerable affluence has been documented time and time again.[3] As educators, we are not as much concerned with the fact of poverty as we are with its ultimate consequences. If poverty were a simple index to the amount of material goods possessed, probably educators would have need for less concern. To the contrary, we know that abject poverty limits one's cultural contacts and personal fulfillment. It conditions the meaning of an educational experience; it affects one's aspirations and expectations in various and sundry devastating manners; it daunts the courage and dims the vision of many; and it stimulates few to great achievements. For far too many, it fosters unrealistically high aspirations and expectations. What American needs most is a rededication and a genuine uncompromising commitment to the eradication of poverty as the root cause of many of the ills afflicting coming generations.

We as professional educators believe that good education is one of the curative agents of poverty. But, we also know that the role of education must be supplemented by other resources available in the public and private sectors, if the job is to be accomplished with dispatch. As we play our role, let us ask ourselves do we have the dedication, the understanding, the empathy and the expertise to design and administer in a meaningful way, to the educational needs of the disadvantaged. If not, let us begin with hope and faith in developing this know-how that coming generations will not suffer a similar fate.

Aspirations and Expectations

Aspiration is an expression of the level to which one would like to attain in education, occupations or other facets of life. Expectations deal with not necessarily a desired or desirable level of attainment, but rather to the level one expects of himself.

It should be said in the outset that studies suggest only little relationships between aspiration and aptitude. It must likewise be said that disadvantaged youth, especially black youth, harbor extremely and probably unrealistically high hopes for educational and occupational attainment for themselves. Their aspirations are high both on an absolute basis, as compared with those of other youth in society and in comparison with the opportunities existing in the social and economic systems. But let's not go too far afield in speaking of aspirations for fear that this which we call personal aspirations might, indeed, be parental aspiration. The mother, for example, is the most potent force in the home for lofty aspirations of black youth.[4] Therefore, expressions of aspirations of youth must be handled rather gingerly. There is nothing wrong with lofty ambitions if they are matched with correspondingly high ability, tenacity and opportunity. In no other facet of human characteristics is expert counseling in greater need. Black youth are developing a growing disenchantment with the "system," due partly to day-by-day experiences of negative deflection of expectations. You must be better to be equal !!!

Focus on the Disadvantaged

Many social, economic, and cultural factors conspire to shape the orientation of youth toward the world of education and the world of work. Therefore, the aspirations, expectations, and even abilities of youth must, as a necessity, be viewed in light of current and emerging social and economic conditions.

To make generalizations about disadvantaged youth is a dangerous venture indeed. There are probably more differences than there are similarities among them. But should we dare to face this danger and hazard generalizations, we find a certain orientation common among them--especially ethnic minorities. They are more vulnerable to fluctuations in social and economic conditions than are youth who are more favorably situated. The buffer zone between them and economic deprivation and social rejection is thinner. They, like their parents, are the first to feel the effect of economic squeezes. Like their parents, they are the last to which affluence flows.

The disadvantaged have been taught by experience from the past to be skeptical of what the future holds for them. Yet, by pure dint of hope, they tend to be idealistic in their orientation toward the future. Quite often this hope is not borne out by faith. Yet, hope without faith is better than nothing at all. By this kind of idealization, they somehow have faith in the American Success Theory--"from rags to riches." They are highly perceptive to rays of hope for the improvement of their lot. They believe, with a vast amount of justification, that the educational ladder is their most positive route to occupational upward mobility. The fact that this ladder is the only, the longest, and most demanding route is a source of constant frustration to them. Because they are who they are in America: be they ethnic minority, white from across the tracks, or any of the other socio-economic and cultural minorities, they need special help if they are to get into the mainstream of modern America.

The Role of Aptitudes, Interest, and Aspirations

Aptitude has reference to what one could learn or could do if he so chose to try. It is an expression of potential rather than achievement. Interests have to do with that to which one is attracted.

Serious attempts to deal meaningfully with disadvantaged youth must constantly involve the multidimensional nature of many human attributes. Interests, aptitudes and aspirations are socially based, innately induced and environmentally determined. It is wise to observe an optimum amount of caution in the interpretation of expressions of aspirations, interests, and aptitudes of these youth, whether by verbalization of "scientific" measurement. Youth tend to express the interests and aspirations which are expected of them by society. There is some evidence to suggest that instruments which measure aptitude are culturally biased and thus do not possess the level of validity for these youth which they purport to have.

Aptitude

School people have for too long been too enamored with the IQ, or general scholastic aptitude. We have failed to recognize and to take into account that people possess at least nine other kinds of attributes which are necessary for an individual to possess if he is to become a member of a workable society. We shall name only musical, mechanical, mathematical, manual, and finger dexterity as examples. So our assessment of these youth should be concerned not only with IQ, but also with how much of what kinds of special potential these youth have. This information cries out for use in counseling the disadvantaged to the end that they will take fullest possible advantage of their strengths--to play their longest suits, so to speak. So long as we maintain a slavish reliance upon the IQ as a sole, or even a principal determinant of individual potential worth, we shall remain on a treadmill with regard to the education of academically unsuccessful youth.

Interest

The assessment of preference for education or occupations is an intriguing field and requires considerable expertise. Interests lie at the base of all of our educational endeavors. There is an adage which states that "you can lead a horse to the water but you can't make him drink." This is a fundamentally poor excuse for fundamentally poor teaching. The job of education is not to make this "horse" drink, but rather to make him thirsty, so that he will want to drink voluntarily. Let us no longer be deceived by these kinds of shibboleths. Let us no longer be led to infer interests of youth by the use of one single measure. Let us compare and correlate verbalized interests with the results of systematic measurement. Let us watch for internal consistency with aptitudes and aspirations. Again, on the score of interest, let us encourage our students to play their best suits in the "game" of life.

Implications

A thorough understanding of the disadvantaged is a necessary step toward providing educational service. Since considerable research has been done in the area of the disadvantaged in our society, it is possible for us to delineate certain guidelines for our consideration. These implications have to do with the planning of programs, the implementation of these plans, staffing, and evaluation.

1. Generally disadvantaged youth are found in families (a) whose parents have completed fewer than eight years of formal schooling, (b) which are headed by a female, (c) whose parents are 65 years old or older, (d) which are rural, farm or nonfarm, (e) who are members of minority ethnic groups. The incidence of families whose income is less than $3,000 annually is disproportionately high among the academically disadvantaged.

2. We should be extremely careful about inferring that the children of poverty parents have low innate mental capacity <u>because</u> their parents have a low level of formal schooling. Mental "jewels" will often be found in these families.

3. Many times, more often than not, scholastic ineptness on the part of the disadvantaged youth stems from ineffective instruction and inexpert counseling and guidance. Well-conceived and conscientiously-conducted <u>programs</u> in counseling and guidance will be of inestimable value in helping disadvantaged youth to develop aspirations which are more realistic in the light of personal potential and the employment alternatives existing in the society.

4. Comprehensive programs in vocational and vocational-technical education are needed in most rural areas to provide the <u>relevancy</u> in education needed by a rural population which is becoming increasingly heterogeneous. Minimal and unimaginative programs in education no longer incite the aspirations or interests of rural youth. Only innovative programs will be of real value in redeeming the disadvantaged from the despair into which public schools have permitted them to become mired.

5. Disadvantaged youth must be taught with a clear understanding of the differences and relationships which exist among interests, aspirations, and aptitudes. The role played by each in helping these students to avoid extreme negative deflection of expectations must be taken into account.

6. Youth belonging to disadvantaged groups or members of ethnic sub-cultures are highly perceptive of insincerity on the part of adults who purport to help them. Therefore, expertise in teaching is not enough to lift the level of these youth. They will need the expert guidance and instruction of people who are honestly and sincerely interested in their welfare as individuals.

7. If we truly believe in the uniqueness of the individual, it naturally follows that we must believe that each individual possesses something which is unique. It is our job as professional educators to find this uniqueness in each individual. Most importantly, we have the responsibility to lead these disadvantaged youth into a more complete understanding of their strengths and weaknesses and to capitalize on their strengths. We should be apprehensive about any program in guidance and counseling which does not deal expertly and understandingly with this pressing educational problem.

30

FOOTNOTES

[1] William Moore, Jr., Against the Odds, Jossey-Bass, Inc., pp.5-6.

[2] U. S. Congress, the 1963 Vocational Education Act, P. L. 88-210 Part 4, Sections A & B.

[3] Breathitt, Ed. The People Left Behind. Report of the President's National Advisory Committees on Rural Poverty.

[4] William C. Boykin, Sr., Educational and Occupational Orientations of Negro Male Youth in the Mississippi Delta, A Research Project, 1969.

31

INNOVATION and the New Concern for the Disadvantaged

William F. Johntz *

(Prior to the following presentation Mr. Johntz gave a demonstration involving 20 disadvantaged students which illustrated his techniques and methods.)

At every period in history, certain key words and phrases appear over and over in the rhetoric of various intellectual disciplines. Sometimes the frequent use of these words simply attests to the fact that they symbolize solutions to problems that concern large numbers of people: "antibiotics," "transistorized," "social security," "the pill." In other instances words become extremely commonplace with particular think-groups because they represent important insights or theories into the physical or psychological world. Examples are "relativity" and "self-fulfilling prophecy." Still another category of these words consists of those whose popularity is a function of their metaphorical merit. I would place "domino theory" (one of the basic rationales of our Viet Nam policy) and "brinkmanship" in these groups.

Perhaps the most interesting category of the oft-spoken word is the one in which the word does not suggest solutions or provide insights or metaphorical titillation, but expresses an intense concern with a particular problem. The word "co-existence" came increasingly into vogue as Russia and the U. S. built military systems capable of annihilating one another--as well as the rest of mankind. Now, "co-existence" is not so much a theory as it is a one-word prayer for peace.

In the field of education there is a word with a similar genesis that appears with ever-increasing frequency in periodical, pulpit, and podium. Legislators, teachers, administrators, and school boards all chant the magic word: INNOVATION.

Creativity, imagination, and innovation will be important criteria in the allocation of hundreds of millions of dollars of educational funds during the coming year. Project writers throughout the U. S. are racking their brains and plagiarizing each other for new fresh innovative proposals.

I would submit that our newly discovered interest in educational change is directly related to our new concern for the disadvantaged students in our schools. These two phenomena are not purely coincidental; there is a large element of causality in the relationship.

---

* Mr. Johntz is Director of Project S.E.E.D. (Special Elementary Education for the Disadvantaged) in Berkeley, California.

For decades the public schools of America have made no serious effort to educate the disadvantaged child. The fact that these children fell further and further behind each year they attended school was considered regrettable; but almost cosmic in its inevitability. Most school districts, in fact, responded to this inevitability by spending less money on each disadvantaged child than they spent on the more advantaged child. Schools heavily populated by disadvantaged students (for example, urban Negroes) had larger pupil-teacher ratios, less qualified teachers, inadequate administrative and counseling staffs, and inferior plants.

Fortunately, during the last 10 years, a happy convergence of political, sociological, and historical forces have drastically altered this situation. School districts are no longer unconcerned about their disadvantaged students. It isn't so much that the heart of the establishment has changed as it is that the "carrot" of federal dollars, coupled with the "stick" of vigorous civil rights activity--both on and off the streets, has made even the most insensitive school districts interested, at last, in doing something about the disadvantaged.

They Fall Behind Each Year. Of course another important event that caused school districts to take a serious look at the Negro was the 1954 Supreme Court dicision on segregation. (Most Negroes in our society are disadvantaged both economically and educationally.) When school boards tried to decide which Negro students or which schools to integrate, they rediscovered what most teachers already knew: the overwhelming majority of Negroes in our schools were significantly behind national achievement norms in most subject areas. Furthermore, they discovered that the Negro child was not only behind in terms of his absolute position, but that he fell further behind each year he attended school.

For most school districts and the communities they served, this information resulted in mild to severe trauma. Some bigot boards, of course, reveled in these facts, happily proclaiming that their long-held belief had been verified--the Negro was indeed genetically inferior! Most school districts, however, were considerably more enlightened in realizing that the Negro student's problems were environmental and not genetic. Indeed, it wasabout this time that the phrase "culturally disadvantaged" came into the educational literature. The phrase itself says in effect: "These people have problems, problems that are due to cultural or environmental conditions and not to any intrinsic characteristics of the people themselves." Some persons in positions of power in education even decided that perhaps they themselves were at least partially responsible for the condition of these students.

The incipient guilt associated with the revelations of the plight of the Negro in our public schools, coupled with the 1954 Supreme Court decision, led to the first of three periods of thought about disadvantaged students. The first phase had two main features:

(1) The decision was made by most school districts to inaugurate some kind of integration, ranging from the token to the extensive. Many educators believed that integration per se would enable the Negro to "catch up."

(2) The decision was also made by many districts to bring the schools that were predominantly populated by the disadvantaged up to the standards of the more middle class schools. The people who proposed this solution had two main ideas in mind:
   (a) If we improve our predominantly Negro schools, the pressure for integration would decline.
   (b) The improved schools would enable the disadvantaged student to catch up. This in turn would make more extensive integration possible in the future.

These two ideas are contradictory, but in the strange and wonderful world of social change, it is not unusual to find two groups with different aims using the same argument for mutually exclusive goals.

In any case, Phase I in the history of the new concern for the disadvantaged could, I think, be best characterized as the integration-fix-up phase. The sounds of school repair and construction were heard throughout the land and at last the faces of Negroes appeared in some white classrooms. But still the disadvantaged did not catch up. There was improvement, but fortunately it satisfied no one--not even those school board members who had been forced to take integrative and fix-up actions against their personal desires. Why, you might ask, would the bigot boards not be satisfied with meager progress, or for that matter, zero or negative progress?

Problem-Solving People. The answer to this paradox lies, I think, in the American public's intense desire to solve problems--any kind of problem. This lust for problem-solving is so great that people will work vigorously on problems whose solutions are in conflict with their own personal desires and prejudices. This is particularly true where the problem is in some sense quantifiable.

If you make a brightly colored graph of cigarette sales in the U.S. and show it to a group of tobacco company employees, even those who are righteously opposed to smoking, feel a desire to see the sales curve go up, up, up. There are White southerners (and others) in Washington, D. C., working for the Office of Economic Opportunity, who, in spite of their personal prejudices about Negroes, have become fascinated with solving the "problem of the poor."

I think that it would be desirable for newspapers to publish each day, along with the Dow Jones and batting averages, the percentage of disadvantaged children reading at grade level.

One may ask, "What are the circumstances under which an undesirable social condition takes on the official status of 'a problem' so that friend and foe can work on it together?" I think the most important requirement is that an individual or institution with great prestige christen the social malcondition as a "problem." Though segregation

has been a terrible problem in the U. S. for centuries, it became an "official" problem to be solved only after the Supreme Court declared it illegal; the Court's action "identified" segregation as a problem. (One of the major psychological blocks to peace is that there does not exist a high status world institution to formally place war in the "problem to be solved" category.)

Rise of Compensatory Education. After it became clear that the integration-fix-up phase of working with disadvantaged students was not meeting with significant success, we found another word creeping into the educational jargon. The word was "compensatory education," and this heralded the beginning of the second phase. Second phase reasoning went something like this: Integration has many psychological, educational, and social values for the advantaged as well as the disadvantaged, but, along, is not enabling the disadvantaged child to catch up. Furthermore, the non-integrated disadvantaged students who remained behind in their "newly fixed-up," "good-as-suburban" schools are not catching up. In short, integration and/or equal quality schools are not enough. Waht we must do is provide preferential treatment for the disadvantaged students.

In 1964 the federal government made it possible to provide better than equal educational opportunities for the disadvantaged through its passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Most school districts have had the use of these federal funds for one full year now. Hundreds of millions of dollars have been spent throughout the nation on a seemingly wide variety of projects. The variety, however, is more apparent than real. Actually the overwhelming majority of these projects suffer from two grave faults:

(1) I would call the first of these faults the "more and better of the same" syndrome, in which the same teachers with the same attitudes and the same methods teach the same content they have always taught to the same children. This teaching may be going on in a classroom with a smaller pupil-teacher ratio and a larger audio-visual equipment-teacher ratio, but as desirable as the ratio changes may be, they along will not guarantee success.

(2) Another serious flaw in these programs is that they are basically remedial. First a school district inventories the shortcomings of its disadvantaged students, and then concentrates on their weaknesses. Superficially this sounds reasonable, but the actual effect of this emphasis on the student's past failures is to further negate his already negative self-image. When one realizes that the disadvantaged child's lack of motivation is primarily based on the fact that he believes the myths of inferiority that have been perpetrated about him it becomes readily apparent that these remedial programs are doomed to failure.

Successful remedial work can take place only after the child has enjoyed a success experience which raises his self-image and consequently his motivation.

A Successful Experiment. For example, I discovered three years ago in an experimental project in Berkeley that disadvantaged elementary school children have a high degree of success with abstract, conceptually-oriented algebra and coordinate geometry when it is presented to them by a person well-trained in mathematics, using the discovery method. The success these children experienced with the abstract algebra improved their self-image in turn making it much easier to interest them in the remedial arithmetic they needed. If I had first approached them with the remedial arithmetic, which is laden with failure connotations for them, before I presented the fresh abstract algebra, they would undoubtedly have experienced failure with both.

Throughout the United States there is a growing awareness of the ineffectiveness of "the more and better of the same" approach as well as the remedial approach that ignores the self-image of the child. It is, in fact, the growing awareness of these two problems that has ushered in the third and present phase of thinking about the disadvantaged child in our public schools.

The battle cry of the new wave is, as I indicated earlier, INNOVATION. It is, I think, a logical battle cry. After all, if "more and better of the same" is not working, then the obvious alternative is change. "Innovation" is, of course, simply a synonym for positive change. And if we are going to provide children with self-image-raising success experiences before we gently introduce the remedial, a great deal of innovation and ingenuity will be required to find those fresh, new, exciting subject areas and methods with which the disadvantaged child can succeed.

Some states, such as California, with its exceptionally imaginative and competent state compensatory education director and staff, have encouraged creativity and innovation in compensatory education programs from their inception. Consider, for example, the following quotation from Guidelines for the Development of Demonstration Programs in Reading and Mathematics (authorized by Senate Bill 28, Article 5):

> The Legislature has provided that any provision of the California Education Code may be awived by the State Board of Education in order to permit intensive instruction in reading and mathematics and complete flexibility in experimentation.

It is a remarkable and altogether happy day when the educational establishment not only talks innovation, creativity, and flexibility, but also takes those crucial steps that make its implementation possible. Many state education codes constitute inviolate guardians of the status quo in education.

The innovation thrust is, however, not going to be limited to those few states like California that have really exemplary compensatory education structures at the state level. I believe, in fact, that during the next few years we are going to see innovative programs even in school districts and states that are generally uneasy about educational change. These innovative programs will, however, operate exclusively

in schools peopled by the poor. The reason that even very conservative school boards are willing to entertain innovative proposals for the disadvantaged is because they feel, "Our disadvantaged students are monumentally unsuccessful in our public schools anyhow, so why not try something different? We have nothing to lose." These same people would be extremely reluctant to instigate change for their middle class college prep students because they fear parental reprisals if the experiment doesn't work.

The middle class parent's monomania regarding his child's getting into college is, I think, reducing educational creativity and innovation in suburbia. It is a delightful but ironic twist of the times that the bright, capable, imaginative teacher or administrator who wishes to effect educational change would do well to look at the slums rather than suburbia. Not only is it more probable that your school district will allow you to try your innovative educational experiments with disadvantaged children than with middle class children; but also if your methods should prove to be successful with the disadvantaged, most educators would believe that these methods would work with the rest of the children in the district as well. In brief, the widespread acceptance of a new educational technique is much more probable if its success is originally proven with the disadvantaged rather than with the advantaged.

Hawthorne Effect. Another argument in favor of carrying our educational experiments in ghetto schools is that the very process of carrying on research creates a Hawthorne effect for the whole school involved. Not only are the students involved in the experiment favorably affected, but the staff and balance of the student body are affected as well. Regardless of the outcome of the experimentation, the self-image of the school is improved by the experience per se. The destructive sense of isolation from the mainstream so characteristic of the ghetto school is destroyed as well.

I would hope that these considerations might encourage private sources of educational research money, such as foundations, universities and industries, to carry on even more of their research in schools peopled by the poor rather than the middle class. The results of this research can then be applied to all of the children in our schools.

The new concern for the disadvantaged students in our schools is resulting in still another automatic benefit to education in general. This benefit results from the fact that when educators work seriously with the disadvantaged student, they inevitably rediscover the monumental importance of that tritest of all educational cliches, "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." They are discovering that $100 of their precious compensatory education funds spent at the elementary level is effecting more salutary change than $1200 spent at the secondary level. Our present allocation of the public school dollar among the various grade levels is the single greatest irrationality in our entire educational system.

Someday, somewhere, a superintendent of exceptional courage and imagination will stop simply talking about the importance of preventing educational problems at the elementary level rather than patching them up at the secondary level. He will go before his school board to request a major reallocation of district funds, not only federal funds, from the secondary level to the elementary level. Secondary education will be temporarily disallocated, but the ultimate result will be a vastly improved secondary school system when students enter the seventh grade truly prepared for a secondary education.

I would suggest then that the single most important innovation that will come out of our new concern with the disadvantaged will be to place elementary school education in its proper position in the educational grade level spectrum.

Wide Dissemination Necessary. At the end of the school year 1966-67, when the smoke of educational innovation settles momentarily, we will discover that a few of the multitude of innovative projects will have proven to be very successful. At this point we must decide what to do with these projects. If the federal and state governments do not find a better method of disseminating their successful projects than those presently used, we will waste hundreds of millions of dollars in duplication of effort by thousands of individual school districts. One of the grave mistakes we make in social planning in this country is to assume that the problems of a specific area are so unique that each individual area must work out its own solutions. I believe that if someone devises an educational project that succeeds with the Negro urban slum dweller of Detroit, there is an excellent chance that the same project, with perhaps slight modification, would work in Chicago, New York, or Los Angeles.

Of course, much of this talk about each district working out its own solutions is simply the thinly disguised local-state-federal power struggle. State departments of education should not be allowed to dictate local policy, but I do think they should be much more active than they have been in the past in making exemplary projects and experiments available to local districts.

Constructive Values Possible. For example, the dissemination of successful ESEA projects at both the state and federal levels is done primarily by a written description. The written report or descriptive brochure is notoriously ineffective in instigating educational change. What is needed is a live demonstration of the successful projects. There should be teams of persons operating out of state offices who go to particular districts to consult and demonstrate what the new effective projects can accomplish. If the local district liked what it saw, the state could even help in setting up the project. Nothing impresses a local district so much as seeing an educational project or method actually succeed in its own classrooms. Well done films would also be far more effective than the written brochure.

Another virtue of a more vigorous dissemination program would be to encourage those districts that are lukewarm about compensatory

education to take a more active interest in their disadvantaged students.

The new concern for the disadvantaged in our schools is going to result in more significant educational research and innovation during the next five years than has occurred during the preceding 65. It would be a terrible mistake to assume that the fruits of all this activity have relevance only for those who work with the disadvantaged. These results have relevance for all students from the most affluent suburbs to our poorest central city slums.

What we learn from working with children in Project Head Start may have implications for post graduate university students. (I personally know of university-level mathematics instruction that has already been affected by the Berkeley project of teaching abstract, conceptually oriented mathematics to disadvantaged elementary school children.)

There has never been a more exciting time to be involved in education. It is just possible that the new concern for the disadvantaged may be the genesis of a new concern for education in general.

Implications of Recent Research on Occupational and Educational Ambitions of Disadvantaged Rural Youth for Vocational Education

William P. Kuvlesky *

INTRODUCTION

This paper represents a continuation of an effort at debunking common and misleading myths about the social ambitions of rural youth--a task I began in a paper presented almost five years ago.[1] My purpose here is to broaden and extend this previous effort by providing a coherent synthesis of current research on aspirations and expectations of disadvantaged rural youth and to offer some ideas about how we might, from a sociological perspective, structure more effective programs of guidance and vocational education to serve these youth.[2] Before I elaborate on the mythical structures, I would like to discuss briefly the reasons why aspirations and expectations of youth are given such prominent attention today.

A basic requisite of any society is that positions necessary to its continued existence be filled by individuals who can perform the obligations of these positions effectively. This obviously includes the desire to perform the obligations associated with such positions. Furtherfore, in this society, we believe that human talents and skills should be utilized to the uppermost possible limits, allowing each individual to progress upward through the socioeconomic hierarchy to find his limit of potential, self-realization, and desire. This utilization of individual potentials is of crucial importance to us at present. The strains on the resources of our society are great and probably will continue for some time. In addition, the failure to follow through on this explicit ideal just mentioned has created internal stresses evolving from frustrations of socially structured groupings unable to fulfill the ambitions they have learned are socially expected in this "achievement-oriented" society. Consequently, it is imperative that we attempt to rationally structure mechanisms for social mobility in our society to utilize as efficiently as possible our human resources, if we are to successfully contend with our internal stresses and our external demands. The extent to which we are successful in doing this may foretell whether or not we will continue to exist as a cohesive society in the future.

---

* Dr. Kuvlesky is Associate Professor of Sociology, Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Texas A & M University, College Station, Texas.

Most of the concern with the aspirations and expectations of rural and disadvantaged youth evolved from the basic premise that these projective phenomena to a large extent condition the individual for advancement or lack of advancement in the achieved status structures of our society. It is presumed that these "frames of aspirational reference" (as Merton called them) provide a cognitive map that structures anticipatory socialization into future adult roles.

To a lesser extent, but still important as a motivation, an interest in status projections stems from potential negative effects for both the individual and society of strongly held but unmet aspirations and expectations. This is the idea at the heart of the "revolution of rising expectations" spreading across the entire world. There is a tendency for creation of unrealistically high aspirations and expectations throughout the various population segments of our society which are not necessarily, particularly for the disadvantaged minorities, compatible with existing opportunities and capabilities of the individual. As Robert Merton pointed out some time ago, the incongruent structures of strong achievement goals with limited opportunity has very important negative consequences for both individuals and their evaluations of society.[3] A widespread failure to meet the internalized goals and expectations of classes or groupings of persons making up society very surely will lead to sharp internal conflicts and probable changes in the nature of the society itself -- a condition not widely desired by the majority in our nation.

The problems discussed above in terms of the larger society are greatly amplified in the rural population. Much evidence exists to indicate that many, if not most, rural youth turn to urban labor markets for realization of their job and income goals. Once in the city, rural youth are at a relative disadvantage in competing for jobs with their urban counterparts. If rural youth do not choose to migrate to the urban centers, their only alternative is to take whatever employment is available in their local community, thereby rigidly limiting alternative paths for occupational mobility and, derivitively, broader social mobility. What is true for rural youth in general is even more true for the disadvantaged among the rural population. They obviously will suffer greater limitations due to impediments that are socially structured in their background environments, their perceptions and self-conceptions, and in the attitudes of other members of the society toward them.

The abundance of studies about youth aspirations and expectations, and the generous financial support provided for such work, stems from the desire to understand better the process of social mobility and the hope that we can isolate the casual variables that determine level of socioeconomic attainment in our society and thereby plan effective action programs to alter factors in such a way that occupational and educational attainment will be maximized for individuals and, derivatively, individual frustrations and group conflicts minimized. As I shall show later, we have learned a lot, but are still far from attaining these high objectives.

STATUS PROJECTIONS OF RURAL YOUTH

Common Beliefs and Myths

There are a number of common notions about aspirations and expectations of disadvantaged rural youth that have been around so long that they have become accepted as truths by many. Some of these have been supported by sloppy generalizations and erroneous interpretations of data reported by social scientists. Before going on to discuss how the research findings relate to these widely shared belief structures, let me ask you to answer the following questions:

1. Do rural youth have low level aspirations for attainment?
2. Do disadvantaged youth have low level achievement aspirations?
3. Do aspirations and expectations become more realistic over time?
4. Do aspirations importantly influence actual status attainment?

Positive replies to these questions indicate that you share in the commonly held belief structures that appear to me to be myths in light of present evidence. Not that there isn't some truth to each one, for there usually is, but they over-state the empirically demonstrated relationships in each case. The erroneous implications derived from these mistaken notions can lead to the structuring of useless or, what is worse, harmful policies and programs for assisting youth. What is my evidence for the bold statement that these common beliefs are misleading? The next portion of this paper provides a brief review of the accumulated evidence related to the questions posed above.

The Research Evidence

Obviously, this will have to be a very brief and superficial survey of research evidence pertaining to status projections of rural youth; however, a number of reports exist synthesizing findings on each of the topics to be discussed and will be cited for the use of those of you interested in a more thorough investigation.[4]

Aspirations and Expections

The vast bulk of accumulated evidence on status projections of rural youth pertains to job and education. Researchers have had the tendency to view aspirations and expectations for attainment along a single dimension. Even though almost two decades have passed since Robert Merton, a prominent social theorist, asserted that in reality youth maintained aspirations in more or less integrated sets, which may vary in the types of goals included as well as in the valuation of these goals. This premise served as one of the guidelines for the development of our regional S-61 project on rural youth and has provided the possibility for testing this proposition, and for providing information on less commonly researched objects of aspiration and expectation (i.e., place of residence, family formation, and military service). Several research analyses contributing to the S-61 project demonstrate that youth do, in fact, maintain more or less integrated

systems of aspirations and expectations and that they do differentially evaluate the particular status goals in a hierarchy of importance.[5]

In reviewing the findings on rural youth, I will examine first of all the levels of aspirations and expectations for job and education maintained by rural youth and then consider place of residence projections, and family formation projections. In each case, I will first note general patterns and then discuss differentials associated with socioeconomic status and/or minority group differentials.

Job and Education

The accumulated research evidence clearly indicates that most rural youth do not have low level job and educational aspirations and expectations at present -- personally, I doubt that they ever did. Whatever was true in the past, it is abundantly clear from recent research across the country that rural youth generally have very high job and educational aspirations and expectations. Recent analyses of regional data collected from several states in the South clearly support this generalization.[6] Rural youth predominantly prefer and to a large extent expect employment in professional or semi-professional and technical types of jobs. In reference to educational attainment, the vast majority of rural youth desire college level education and almost all desire at least formal vocational training or junior college after high school completion. There is a tendency for aggregate deflection from college goals toward anticipation of post high school vocational training. Currently, evidence from both the South and Northwest indicate that few rural youth either desire or expect to farm -- this has obvious implications for the need to continue Vocational-Agriculture programs for local high schools.

While it is true that urban youth tend to have higher level status projections than rural youth, this should not be interpreted to mean that rural youth have low level status projections, for it is abundantly clear that the rural/urban differentials are much less important than the similarly high aspirations and expectations held by most youth. Differences by race in the South and by social class across the nation are of a similar nature. Certainly class, race, and ethnic differentials exist -- the disadvantaged youth tend to hold lower level goals and anticipated attainments. Still the majority of even the most disadvantaged youth, the rural Negro in the South and Mexican American rural youth of the Southwest, desire high prestige job attainments and college level education.[8]

In conclusion, most rural youth, regardless of class or race, are like most other youth in holding high ambitions for attainment. At the same time, it should not be overlooked that sizeable minorities of disadvantaged rural youth, perhaps much more than other types of youth, have relatively low level aspirations. Obviously any program of guidance or vocational training established to help these youth will have to take these differences into account -- the same programs are not likely to work effectively for both the ambitious and the unambitious.

Place of Residence Projections[9]

Do most rural youth from economically deprived areas want to stay in the country? No! What about farm youth? No! At least this is what the scant evidence on the subject indicates. Studies done in both Florida and Texas indicate that almost all black children and most of the white living in the nonmetropolitan areas studied desired and expected to live in or near cities. Additional support from fragmental evidence of other studies done in Kentucky and Michigan support the contention that this is a general pattern. It seems clear that, unless the orientations of today's rural youth can be changed, there is little utility in attempting to sell them so-called "rural values" and to prepare them for local, rural labor markets. It seems to me that the place of residence projections of these youth represent a rational alignment with their high job and educational goals and the limited opportunities for vertical mobility available in the hinterland. Unless we can alter this situation soon, most rural areas in the South will face a continued exodus of ill-prepared youth that will continue to feed the smoldering problems or our urban centers.

Family Formation Projections[10]

Very little research has been done on rural youth's orientations toward the development of a family. The rural-urban differences in age of marriage and procreation are so marked and persistent, that surely one might presume differences in valuation of the family and, derivatively, differences in aspirations for such things. Yet, the only systematic and comprehensive study of disadvantaged rural girls projections for age of marriage and size of family apparently contradicts these notions. Our investigation of East Texas rural girls indicates that most desire to wed relatively late (21 for the white and 22.5 for the black) -- considerably after the age of normal high school completion -- and want small families (3 children). What is more, Negro girls do not differ significantly from their white counterparts in this regard. Again, this evidence appears to be in rational alignment with other status projections and is indicative of a value for deferred gratification in reference to marriage and children. The configuration of aspirations begins to look like a portrait of middle class, urban life. This is apparently the style of life most of our rural youth, including the disadvantaged, want and which many expect to obtain. Are we helping them obtain this end? For the most part we are not!

Dynamics of Ambition

Theory borne out of the writings of Eli Ginzberg almost thirty years ago and perpetuated by later writings of such rural sociologists as Haller and Burchinal posits increasing specification, realism, and stability in occupational choice through adolescence.[11] It seems logical to presume that similar developmental trends should exist for aspirations and expectations directed toward other status areas and, in particular, education. However, little research has evolved to test these assertions until very recently. Longitudinal panel studies evolving during the past year from S-61 indicate that youth from

economically deprived rural areas of the South, both black and white, do not demonstrate particular stability or increasing realism (lowering of aspirations) between their sophomore and senior years in high school.[12] Approximately half of these youth altered their job aspirations and expectations over the last two years of high school, moving to both higher and lower levels, leaving the aggregate profile for the two time periods relatively unchanged. It appears that whatever was done in the high schools these young people attended, it did not produce a greater congruency between their desires and anticipations or between these phenomena and the harsh realities of their competitive disadvantage in the labor markets they would face shortly.

A study of rural Mexican American dropouts we did recently indicates that youth may in fact lower their goals and expectations when they leave school, but not much.[13] Most of these dropouts held high goals and unrealistic expectations for both education and jobs. What is surprising, and important to know for adult vocational program development, is that the majority of these dropouts both desired to come back to school and would do so under certain conditions. Another useful fact was that most dropouts indicated a lack of social support to stay in school before they left. More concern on the part of the school to identify prospective dropouts and offer them support and assistance could probably reduce the dropout rate.

Unfortunately, our evidence on dynamics of aspirations and expectations is limited to a very narrow age range -- almost nothing exists to demonstrate how these phenomena change through early adulthood and later in life. However, I have some preliminary observations from a study we are just starting on rural adult Negro females.[14] While most of the 250 women studies never completed high school, almost all of them aspire to additional education, many of these desire vocational training. On the other hand, many, if not most, do not expect to get more training. I suspect this difference is due largely to a lack of vocational and other educational programs structured to meet their needs. Obviously this presents a difficult problem for vocational educationists -- these people would require some kind of economic support while going to school, considerable training in basic and special skills, and high per unit costs.

Aspirations and Attainment

In spite of the fact that much of the interest in youth aspirations and expectations is due to the presumed importance these have on attainment of achieved status, very few studies have examined this relationship. The little research that has been done is dated, largely limited to occupational attainment, and restricted to the North and Midwest.[15] Despite these limitations, the evidence clearly indicates that aspirations are generally <u>not</u> good predictors of status attainment. On the other hand, enough evidence exists to indicate appreciable differentials among types of aspirations in this regard. For instance,several studies indicate that aspirations to farm is for all practical purposes a requisite to becoming a farmer, and one of these reported that aspirations for low prestige jobs disproportionately produces unskilled and semiskilled job placement.[16] Although we may need more investigations

before we can make any definite statements about these differentials, the simple fact that they exist should be knowledge of importance to people concerned with helping youth plan a vocational career.

Perhaps the most telling significance of youth aspirations and expectations lies in the effects they may have for subsequent personal orientations and behavioral patterns, other than status attainment. A statement I made in this regard in an article published three years ago is still appropriate. "Whatever casual significance aspirations have for attainment, differentiating types of incongruity still seems reasonable. Past research has shown that there are important behavioral differences resulting from the job a person holds. For example, even when two persons are unskilled laborers, the fact that one started with an aspiration to be a doctor and the other desired to be a carpenter is probably an important difference. Similarly, going in the opposite direction, if two persons aspired to a managerial status with one attaining a high-prestige professional position and the other a low-prestige labor job, significant consequential behavior will occur.

"The most obvious way where these differences in kind of incongruity might be manifest is in the degree of frustration or deprivation felt in the work role. The dream of a great number of Americans is to be socially mobile (in a vertical sense) and high occupational achievement is normally an integral part of the former. The degree or extent of failure may influence the extent and/or nature of possible adjustment problems. Our own data indicate a marked positive association between deflection from occupational aspirations to undesired subsequent attainments and degree of negative self-evaluation. It is in this area that the apparently unabated interest in the study of aspirations may yield the greatest insight."[17]

If the tenuous findings reported above prove to be correct, and there is no evidence to contradict them, a program to help rural youth established on false premises("the need to generally raise their aspiration levels") could compound an already serious problem and produce uncalled for psychic pain and social stress.

Summary of Findings

In brief, the important conclusions that can be reached from existing research on status projections of rural youth is that they are projecting, for the most part, a middle class urban life style. The important dimensions of this configuration are outlined as follows:

(1) Levels of Ambition: Disadvantaged rural youth do not have low levels of aspiration and expectation -- they clearly desire to move beyond their parents' achievements in occupational and educational attainment.
   (a) Most desire and expect high prestige, white-collar jobs and college education.
   (b) Very few either desire or expect to terminate their education with high school graduation and to enter farming.

(2) Place of Residence Projections: Most rural youth desire to live in or near a city -- substantially more so for blacks than whites.

(3) Projections for Family Development: Most rural girls, black and white, desire to marry in the early twenties and both desire and expect rather small families.

Furthermore, the limited findings that exist on dynamics of projections indicate that considerable instability exists in late adolescence, but that in the aggregate, the aspirations and expectations do not change much. What is more, there appears to be in general only a weak association between aspirations and long-run attainment, but on the other hand, it appears that lack of fulfillment of adolescent aspirations may be related to adjustment problems as an adult.

SUGGESTIONS FOR POLICY AND ACTION

A substantial number of publications have evolved over the last ten years providing a wealth of ideas on changes needed in rural school organization, vocational counseling, and vocational training programs to assist people in bringing about their ambitious projections for social mobility -- I have selected some of the more comprehensive of these and listed them in the APPENDIX. The two most recent of these reports, published by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, are particularly interesting. Archie Haller in the publication entitled Rural Education and the Educational Occupational Attainments of Youth lists a set of general comprehensive needs: the need for massive financial support from federal and state governments to provide effective counseling and training programs for rural youth; the development of an awareness that programs of effective guidance and provision of social support are equally as important as facilities; and the need to train people to utilize the motivational and information resources that already exist in providing guidance and training for rural youth. The report by Griessman and Densley entitled, Vocational Education in Rural Areas provides a more comprehensive and detailed examination of suggestions for improving counseling and vocational education opportunities for rural youth. These authors cover quite well a broad range of ideas directed toward such things as curriculum, school consolidation (including development of specialized area and regional schools), mobile vocational units, advisory councils, work experience programs, counseling programs, and needs in teacher education. I strongly recommend these two reports to anyone interested in exploring ways to further the interests of disadvantaged rural youth.

It would be presumptuous and of little utility for me to offer suggestions for specific structures and techniques in reference to vocational counseling and training of disadvantaged rural youth: many of you are more knowledgeable in this respect than I, and other speakers who are specialists in these matters will be presenting you with information and ideas. What I intend to do is to view this problem from a broad sociological perspective and offer for your consideration general implications at two levels: suggestions for needs in collaboration and cooperation between certain sub-systems of the larger society, and

high priority needs for broadly reorganizing certain structures of rural education to serve better the needs of rural youth and adults.

Needs for Cooperation

We need to think big in orienting ourselves toward the solution of the problems facing disadvantaged rural people in gaining a productive and satisfying life. A more advantageous time for seeking broad support for melioration of this problem has probably never existed. We are dealing with a problem that has broad ramifications for all the people and areas of our society and one that is finally becoming recognized by the public at large. There is no need to take a narrow, provincial orientation toward this problem, for the interests of urban dwellers as well as people in the hinterland are involved. Rural people are not happy with the progressive depopulation their communities have experienced, nor are urban dwellers pleased with either the magnitude or quality of the rural migrants. Obviously the flow of the disadvantaged from the rural South, particularly Negroes, into major metropolitan centers, which continues unabated, has contributed greatly to the general and critical stresses our nation faces today. The touchstone of the solution to many of these problems lies with the quality and effectiveness of rural education structures, regardless of whether the bulk of the rural poor continue to migrate to large urban centers or whether we assume that this trend can be reversed. In either case, or both, it is to the advantage of rural areas, the metropolitan centers, the nation as a whole, and certainly to the individuals involved to improve the prospects of social mobility for the rural disadvantaged. As Haller and others have pointed out, probably the first requisite is the need for a national policy on rural education with a special emphasis on the disadvantaged. I concur with Haller's judgement that "--we need a single overall educational policy for rural regions, rural ethnic groups, and rural peripheries of urban areas -- a long-range program for improving rural education with special but coordinated emphasis for different regions and ethnic groups." The enactment of such a national policy would bring about a widespread awareness of the magnitude of this problem and provide legitimation for giving it top priority for action and, derivatively, legitimation for the mass input of financial resources needed. This is not just a problem of local or county units or even a problem of just rural areas. It is a national and state problem. Consequently, we should expect and seek massive federal and state assistance in providing the heavy investments of resources needed to materially effect this problem. Strong, well-organized cooperation between federal, state, and local governments is a requisite for implementation of a policy that will have any kind of impact on this situation.

In addition, we need to creatively orient ourselves toward breaking down the provincial community orientation that tends to prevail in rural areas of the South and other regions so that new, innovative, cooperative structures might be established between and among rural schools within counties, areas, and regions to utilize better scarce resources in developing the potential of rural people. This would also facilitate the development of cooperative programs of job placement and social adjustment that need to be built between rural and urban political units.

I do not kid myself about the difficulty of accomplishing the aforementioned objectives. These will be difficult to accomplish; however, they are necessary prerequisites to any kind of a general and enduring solution to the problems we face in rural human resource development. Another form of cooperation that might facilitate the accomplishment of these ends, and is very often overlooked in statements of needs pertaining to rural education, involves the relationships existing between social scientists, on one hand, and policy makers and educators, on the other. There is a need for more effective and continuous communication and collaboration among these groupings of professionals in order to realize a commonly held objective of improving the prospects for self-realization and social development of disadvantaged rural people. There is an obvious mutual advantage in carrying out the particular professional roles involved through the information that would be exchanged through improved communication and dialogue. In addition to this, and perhaps more significant in the short-run, is the increased power that would be marshalled through cooperative associations of these professionals relative to influencing the development and implementation of a comprehensive national policy. The efforts of agencies such as the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education in Small Schools (New Mexico State University) and the ERIC Clearinghouse at the Center for Vocational and Technical Education (Ohio State University) have made a beginning in this direction. But, these efforts are not sufficient to build the kind of intimate and continuous working bonds we need to get the job done. We need a systematic and intensive effort to begin sharing ideas and collaborating on programs through joint sessions of our professional associations -- first at the national level and then as progressively less complex levels or organization (i.e., regional, state, and local). We need to work toward establishing more effective ties in our day-to-day working relationships as well -- both within universities and colleges and between these systems and the rural school systems.

A hairy and sensitive problem involving cooperation of a different order is present in the rural South and Southwest -- that between racial and ethnic groupings of the populations involved. To ignore the critical aspect of this problem is utter foolishness, for no long-run solution to the problems of aiding the rural disadvantaged can be accomplished until we reverse the trend toward increasing tension and conflict between these groupings. We need to face up to this problem in a direct and honest way; to examine its dimensions closely; and to come up with programs and organizational structures that will overcome local and regional prejudices and discriminatory practices in both education and employment, without producing mutual distrust and disaffection. This is a large order, but one that will not wait.

Change in Rural Educational Structures

In considering the needs for changes in educational structures in particular rural areas, there is a need to face up to the complexity of the problem and resist the notion that there is an easy or simple solution, (i.e., generally raising aspirations, better facilities, or better teachers). We must work across a number of fronts simultaneously to have any hope of success.

First, I think it is necessary to seek out institutionalized structures impeding the possibility of innovative changes in counseling, training, and occupational placement of the disadvantaged rural people. Some of these that, in my judgement, are most important and must be altered, are as follows:

1. The sanctity of the concept of the local community school and total local domination over the ends and programs of education.

2. The tendency to put local community interests ahead of the felt needs and objectives of the rural youth.

3. The tendency to maintain Vocational Agriculture as the most important vocational program for adolescent boys.

4. The tendency to neglect or give low priority to the need for comprehensive and intensive guidance programs, including career counseling and job placement.

5. The tendency to be satisfied with teachers who can be recruited at low salaries and the utilization of locally available, but partially or poorly trained, individuals as teachers.

6. The lack of concern for the development of a broad, continuous educational program beyond adolescence geared to adult needs and desires.

All of these changes will be difficult to bring about and will take time. We need to begin developing research, experimental programs, and knowledge diffusion toward these ends now.

Once change is possible, with some probability of success in implementation, priority should be given to establishing the following types of structures:

1. The development of a comprehensive program aimed at total human resource development, which will integrate vocational and personal counseling, development of educational options, placement in educational and vocational programs, and job placement.

2. To develop in the long-run, programs to train counselors to operate this comprehensive guidance function -- people trained to utilize information on youth's ambitions, abilities and skills, labor market needs and restrictions, and job placement techniques. In the short-run, present teaching staffs should be encouraged to do graduate work in counseling related areas and new teachers selected on their training and ability in student guidance.

3. To place an emphasis on education aimed at self-realization of the individual rather than on standardized, routinized processing of aggregates through school routines aimed at producing diplomas. Increase the opportunity for changing

programs, provide highly personalized and individual student guidance, and structure opportunities for students to test their notions about life preferences in real situations.

4. Build more diversified programs aimed at preparing all youth for additional education after high school, including vocational training. Develop adult vocational programs structured to pick up where high school training leaves off, and specialized ones to serve the dropout.

Obviously a good deal of carefully structured experimentation coupled with honest evaluative research will be required to find the best ways of accomplishing these ends and others that may prove more worthwhile.

You may not agree with all the suggestions I have offered, but I hope that these will at least provide a framework for thought and dialogue. I am convinced that we need changes in our modes of developing the potentials of our rural disadvantaged, and soon, if our society is not to evolve into a form of rigid stratification none of us want.

FOOTNOTES

1. William P. Kuvlesky. "Occupational Aspirations and Expectations of Rural Youth: Some Suggestions for Action Programs," Proceedings, Association of Southern Agricultural Workers meeting -- Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology Section, Jackson, Mississippi, 1966.

2. William P. Kuvlesky. "A Synthetic Overview of Research on Rural Youth's Projections for Occupational and Educational Attainment," paper presented at the annual meetings of the Rural Sociological Society, San Francisco, August, 1969.

3. Robert K. Merton. Social Theory and Social Structure, rev. ed., Chapters 4 & 5, Glencoe: The Free Press, 1957.

4. Kuvlesky, "A Synthetic Overview...," op. cit.

5. William P. Kuvlesky and W. Kennedy Upham. "Social Ambitions of Teen-Age Boys Living in an Economically Depressed Area of the South: A Racial Comparison," presented at the annual meeting of the Southern Sociological Society, Atlanta, March, 1967.

6. Michael F. Lever and William P. Kuvlesky. "Socio-Economic Status and Occupational Status Projections of Rural Southern Youth," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, San Francisco, August, 1969; and Thomas, Katheryn A. "Educational Orientations of Southern Rural Youth: An Analysis of Socio-Economic Status and Racial Differences," unpublished master's thesis, University of Kentucky, May, 1970.

7. Ibid.; and E. G. Youmans, et. al., After High School What: Highlights of a Study of Negro and White Rural Youth in Three Florida Counties, Gainesville, University of Florida, CES, 1965.

8. William P. Kuvlesky, David E. Wright, and Rumaldo Juarez. "Status Projections and Ethnicity: A Comparison of Mexican American, Negro, and Anglo Youth," paper presented at the annual meetings of the Southwestern Sociological Association, New Orleans, April, 1969.

9. William P. Kuvlesky and John Pelham, "Place of Residence Projections of Rural Youth," Social Science Quarterly, 50 (June 1970).

10. William P. Kuvlesky, Angelita S. Obordo, and James D. Preston. "Racial Differences in Teen-Age Girls' Orientations Toward Marriage: A Study of Youth Living in an Economically Depressed Area of the South," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southern Sociological Society, New Orleans, 1969.

11. L. G. Burchinal, et al. Career Choices of Rural Youth in a Changing Society. NCRP No. 142. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota, Agricultural Experiment Station.

12. See the following research reports: Melvin Knapp. "Mobility Aspirations and Expectations of Southern Youth," paper presented at the annual meetings of the Association of Southern Agricultural Workers, Mobile, Alabama, February, 1969; Stephen S. Thaxton, "Occupational Status Orientations of Northeast Alabama High School Boys: A Longitudinal Perspective," unpublished master's thesis Auburn University, June, 1969; Virlyn A. Boyd and John S. Lytle, "Changes in Educational Aspirations from Sophomore Year to Senior Year of a Statewide Sampel of South Carolina High School Students," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association of Southern Agricultural Workers, Memphis, Tennessee, February, 1970; and Katheryn A Thomas and Nelson L. Jacob. "A Longitudinal Analysis of Change in Occupational and Educational Orientations of East Texas Boys: A Racial Comparison," paper to be presented at the 1970 annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, Washington, D. C., August, 1970.

13. Sherry Wages, Katheryn Thomas, and William P. Kuvlesky. "Mexican American Teen-Age School Dropouts: Reasons for Leaving School and Orientations Toward Subsequent Educational Attainment," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwestern Sociological Association, Houston, April 1969; and William P. Kuvlesky and Sherry Wages. "Differences in the Occupational and Educational Projections of Mexican American High School Students and Dropout Age Peers," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwestern Sociological Association, Dallas, March 1970.

14. This research is being done as a Texas Experiment Station contribution to a cooperative interregional USDA project NC-90 "Factors Affecting Patterns of Living in Disadvantaged Families."

15. Kuvlesky, "A Synthetic Overview...," op. cit.

16. William P. Kuvlesky and Robert C. Bealer. "The Relevance of Adolescents' Occupational Aspirations for Subsequent Job Attainment," Rural Sociology, 32 (September 1967).

17. Ibid., p. 301

APPENDIX

Selected Reports Providing General Policy Implications From Research on Aspirations and Expectations of Rural Youth

1962 Burchinal, L. G., et al. Career Choices of Rural Youth in a Changing Society. NCRP No. 142. Minneapolis, University of Minnesota, Agricultural Experiment Station.

1963 Haller, A. O., et al. Rural Youth Need Help in Choosing Occupations. Circular Bulletin 235. East Lansing, Michigan State University.

1965 Burchinal, L. G. (ed.). Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths, and Social Change. Washington, D. C., U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

1966 Kuvlesky, W. P. Occupational Aspirations and Expectations of Rural Youth: Some Suggestions for Action Programs (Mimeo). College Station, Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Texas A & M University.

1966 Haller, A. O. "Occupational Choices of Rural Youth," Journal of Cooperative Extension (Summer).

1967 Cowhig, J. D. and C. L. Beale. "Vocational Agriculture Enrollment and Farm Employment Opportunities," The Southwestern Social Science Quarterly, 47 (March 1967) pp. 413-423.

1969 Haller, A. O. Rural Educational and Occupational Attainments of Youth. Las Cruces, New Mexico, ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, New Mexico State University.

1969 Griessman, B. E. and K. G. Densley. Vocational Education in Rural Areas. VT Research Series No. 50. Las Cruces, New Mexico, ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, New Mexico State University.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

A Case Study of the Tupelo Area

Harold F. Kaufman *

This paper has two subject matter objectives:

1. To indicate some topics and subject matter essential for discussion for vocational training in a community context.
2. To make application to a specific community.

The community is the Tupelo multicounty trade and service area which we shall visit tomorrow. If the above objectives are carried out well, the outline may be used by you to describe and analyze other communities and job market areas and to help you to conceive vocational education as a phase of community development.

The major pedagogical objective of this paper is not as much subject matter as it is acquiring an attitude or perspective. The attempt is made to help you to leave your roles in vocational education behind momentarily and to move out into the community to look at your activities as others see them. I am aware that one might use a soft-sell, nondirect approach with this teaching objective. I regard you as mature and tough-minded, and thus make explicit the perspective I should like you to use.

Changes in Work Patterns and the Community

Wherever you look in the world today a revolution is occurring in the arena of work. This revolution is found in the developing countries of Asia, Africa, and South America as well as in the nations located largely in North America and Europe which have more advanced technologies. In a society with a primitive technology the majority of the workers are involved in agriculture, fishing, and other ways of securing food and raw materials. In the United States the proportion of workers in agriculture has declined in less than a century from over one-half to the 5 percent found today. In Mississippi this change has been even more rapid. Within a generation the proportion of workers in agriculture has declined from over one-half to between 10 to 15 percent today, and the proportion continues to decline rapidly.

Two Revolutionary Changes

With the shift from an economy based primarily on agriculture to

---

* Dr. Kaufman is Research Professor of Sociology, Social Science Research Center, Mississippi State University, State College, Mississippi.

one in which industry and services are dominant, two major types of changes have taken place which reshaped the nature of the whole society. One change deals with the separation of work and residence and the second with the growth of size of work groups and the impersonalization which has developed.

In agricultural societies people live and work in the same place. Man's job and his family are both in the same locality. With the decline in agricultural employment and the increase in nonagricultural jobs, work and residence have become separated even for those who remain in the countryside. Many rural residents now drive miles to places of employment. In the metropolis one may reside in the suburbs and work in the central city or a satellite town some distance away.

With the growth of technology, the size of the work group has increased. In the typical agricultural community, work groups consisted of a few people; today these groups number in the hundreds and thousands. This development of a more complex organization or bureaucracy has resulted in a hierarchy of positions and the growth of impersonal relations between supervisor and worker has resulted in greater emphasis upon management practices and industrial relations. It has been necessary for workers to organize into unions in order to gain and maintain the rights which they believe belong to them.

The Community Can Influence Change

The degree to which work is separated from residence and the enlargement and impersonalization of the work group can greatly influence the spatial arrangement and the extent of cooperation and conflict in a community. The above forces can be controlled, however, if the community has vision. This is attempted in Tupelo by limiting the size of industries and planning their locations. It has been a policy of industrial location in Tupelo not to secure a plant which, when first established, had more than 500 workers. Due to growth since location, four plants in the Tupelo area have more than 500 workers; but the largest has only 675 and is a plant that has been located in the area since the forties. The largest employer in Lee county, however, is not an industry but the medical center which has between 700 and 800 employees. The largest industrial families in the Tupelo area are furniture, textiles, food processing, and light metals.

Orderly location of industry may be realized through zoned areas or industrial parks. Thus, industry can be dispersed by scattering the industrial parks. The first two industrial parks in Tupelo were located within the city. The most recent one is the first stop on tomorrow's trip and is south of the city. The next one is planned at least ten miles or more away on the north side. The community is now in the process of providing a county-wide water and sewage system along with fire protection. It is also much concerned with its roads and highways and is engaged in a public transportation study. With the facilities just enumerated, industry might be even more widely dispersed than would seem feasible at present.

A slogan for Tupelo has long been "the city without city limits." A strong decentralization philosophy is evident in many of the community activities. A decentralized type of urbanization which is developing is suggested by some as an alternative to our densely populated central cities with their many ills. Physical planning and zoning are, of course, necessary for orderly spatial growth. In the fifties legislators from Lee County were instrumental in getting state authority for county zoning.

Industrialization: A Community Enterprise

Places will vary greatly as to the extent of planning in the creation of jobs, provision for education and training, and the establishment of various local services. Unfortunately, in many places activities of this type occur more or less independently. Where there is comprehensive planning, however, one sees a sense of community emerging. As already indicated, Tupelo is a community which is attempting to direct changes to its own benefit.

The CDF and Related Groups

As has already been implied, a community is more than a place. The good community is able to get things done. It has leaders and groups who are able to work together to realize their goals. A description of community development from the standpoint of contribution of leadership is to be found in the publication which each of you have, entitled Team Leadership: A Key to Development, Another Chapter in the Tupelo Story.

A description of the CDF, the Community Development Foundation, is a good place to begin in describing the Tupelo area as a community. The CDF is a greatly expanded Chamber of Commerce with much more emphasis on comprehensive development. It is a central organization in development and relates to numerous groups, formally and informally. This agency was established nearly 25 years ago. The CDF carries out its work through a number of commitees. Relevant here is the Industrial Commitee. The organization raises a budget of over $100,000 a year through its membership of approximately 600.

The CDF sponsors development in at least three different ways. One is through the creation of a committee or an agency to which CDF gives continuing support. The second approach is for the CDF initially to organize and sponsor a program, then as soon as possible to stimulate it to become autonomous. The third approach is through informal influence of leaders active in the CDF programs.

Although there is much emphasis on voluntary organization in Tupelo development, government is not overlooked. It is treated as an invaluable partner and when a plan is shown to be effective, government is frequently asked to support and sometimes to administer the program concerned.

Stages in Development and Trends in Employment

Three stages may be noted in the development of the Tupelo area over the last 25 years. The first major emphasis was on agriculture and rural

life. This was expressed in the creation of the Rural Community Development Council (RCDC) and in the organization of 25 to 30 open country neighborhood clubs. Most of these clubs are still active although their programs have changes radically as the occupations of their members have changed from agriculture to nonagricultural pursuits. In the thirties well over half of all employed workers in the area were engaged in agriculture while today less than one-seventh of the population is so employed.

The second stage of development was the emphasis on the creation of industrial and nonagricultural jobs which included developing wholesale as well as retail establishments. Industrial jobs increased in Lee and the six adjoining counties nearly five times during the twenty-year period 1950 to 1970.

In this period the number of industrial jobs in Lee county increased from less than 2,000 in 1950 to over 10,000 in 1970. During the last year while Jackson, the largest city in the state, lost approximately 1,000 industrial jobs, the number increased in Lee county by about this number. Although there are several cities in Mississippi larger than Tupelo, the total deposits in the Tupelo banks are second only to those in the banks of Jackson. Bank deposits have increased approximately seven times in the last 20 years.

The development in the Tupelo area, however, has not stopped with providing jobs. In the early sixties we may see a third stage of development emerging with an emphasis on health, education, and welfare. This stage of development is of special relevance to those of us in this Institute who are interested in service to the disadvantaged groups. Programs emerging in this phase include the Mental Health Center, Vocational-Technical Center, and LIFT, the OEO community action program along with a number of special programs in the public schools.

Management-Worker Relations

Community concern is also expressed in the attempt to maintain satisfactory relations between management and workers in the various industries. To realize this important objective in industrial development, the Northeast Mississippi Community Relations Association was organized in December 1959. Some of its stated objectives are:

1. "To correlate the activities of northeast Mississippi business and industrial firms in community undertakings and projects;
2. "To promote good will, understanding, and cooperation between industry and all segments of the community;
3. "To oppose the undue encroachment of governmental authority on the freedom of industry, labor, individuals, or groups."

The Association has been a positive force in promoting the employment of black workers in industry. It and related groups have been accused of being opposed to unions. This is a moot question. Some would argue that the Association and related groups support workers in gaining the major benefits that unions would help achieve but without the possible

disruptive influences.

Job Training and Related Services for the Disadvantaged

Two emphases of Tupelo development which are of special interest to members of this Institute are (1) the stress on creating jobs and (2) special assistance to the disadvantaged. The story of providing jobs has been described above. Here, we focus on the development of services for the disadvantaged. But first, we need to ask the question, who are the disadvantaged?

Who are the Disadvantaged?

Although several in this Institute will speak on this question, I should also like to provide my answer. A disadvantaged person is one who possesses a handicap, physical, social, or psychological, which prevents him from competing on an equal basis with others in the job market or other arenas of opportunity. As is generally recognized, there are a number of factors involved in keeping people disadvantaged.

If the above, all-inclusive definition of disadvantaged is followed, one can without punning say that "the disadvantaged have many faces." As a number of factors contribute to the disadvantaged position, there are also several avenues for improvement. The process of ceasing to be disadvantaged may be termed social mobility. Upward social mobility is a movement from a lower status to a higher one. Prominent characteristics of status and channels of mobility are education, occupation, and social adjustments in family, peer groups, and community.

Income, especially that secured from work, is the most frequent criterion for classifying people as disadvantaged or poor. When this criterion is used, the answer is often implied that if the person or family received adequate income, all would be well. To paraphrase the biblical injunction, "seek ye first adequate income and all other things will be added unto you." In a way, however, income is more a result of certain other factors of mobility than the cause. For the mobile young person a good job and high income are not the first but the cumulation of a series of experiences. Critical experiences deal with acquiring necessary motivation, knowledge, and skills.

There are not only disadvantaged people but disadvantaged groups and places. The state of Mississippi is one of these places. When the number of states increased from 48 to 50, Mississippi lost two points in rank. A Kentucky development group had at one time a slogan, "Thank God for Mississippi and sometimes Arkansas."

Several interrelated historical factors are responsible for Mississippi's position. These include a one-crop agriculture, late industrial development, and a large rural Negro population. The relatively large social and economic disadvantaged population in Mississippi makes development more difficult than it would be otherwise. For example, the differential age structure may be given. The number of children in Mississippi under six years of age in the black and white population is almost identical,

but there are twice as many people in the productive years in the white group as there are in the black.

One of the first prerequisites in improving status, whether a person or a group, is to recognize that you are disadvantaged or poor. The Tupelo community has recognized that in natural resources even when compared with other communities in the state of Mississippi it is poor. It lacks the location, soil, forest, and/or water resources which many other communities have. Consequently, Tupelo's recurring theme in development is that "our strength lies in our people." Here is a key to the community's success in that community leaders turn their attention to raising the level of the disadvantaged, especially the youth.

Jobs Come First

Which comes first in a development program, jobs or training? There is general agreement that training should not precede jobs but rather be integrated with or follow the creation of employment opportunities. Development specialists have frequently pointed out that education and trained people frequently become frustrated and join radical political movements when job opportunities are lacking.

The general impression is that the average worker in the Tupelo area is trained on the job. This means that most of the persons employed in services and industry were not referred by a training agency but were "walk-ins." The question may be raised as to whether the major training and employment agencies in the community do not deal largely with those who have less than average competency in the job market. The training agency which appears most middle class in its clientele is the cooperative program in the high school. The above must be taken a speculation until information is available on: (1) sources of training of the present labor force and (2) the number of persons utilizing the training and employment agencies who can or cannot be classified as disadvantaged.

Three Front Line Agencies

Three front line agencies focusing on training and placement of the disadvantaged in the Tupelo area are (1) the Vocational-Technical Center of the junior college, (2) the Regional Rehabilitation Center, and (3) the Mississippi Employment Commission. The first two named agencies were intiated at the local level and to no small degree were a credit to the local leadership team. Early in the sixties the CDF developed a proposal for a building for the Vocational-Technical Center in Tupelo. They secured the support of the officials of the junior college in the neighboring county seat (a college which Lee county helps to support) and from state officials. They secured funds from federal and state as well as local sources and help from local industries. Within less than a year after approval of the Center, a director was hired, and within three years the new facility was in operation.

The idea of the Rehabilitation Center came from a small group of people of which one woman played a prominent role. At first the group failed to get encouragement from state and federal agencies but persisted

in its effort. In time the Center began to receive large amounts of federal assistance. Today all who are associated with it can point to it with pride. It has not only treatment and continuing education for the several classes of handicapped persons but also has moved into the field of job training and placement. With respect to the latter, it not only prepares persons for regular employment but also is operating, or soon will be, a temporary as well as a terminal sheltered workshop.

The third agency in the front line in training and employment for the disadvantaged is the State Employment Commission. It carries on the usual functions of such an agency and has responsibility for the MDTA program. You will be fully briefed on these three agencies on your tour tomorrow and will visit the Voc-Tech school and the Regional Rehabilitation Center. An example of the cooperation among these agencies is the use of the Voc-Tech Center by other groups. MDTA training and the Neighborhood Youth Corps training are contracted by their respective agencies to the Voc-Tech school.

Associated Agencies in the War of Poverty

Other agencies making an invaluable contribution in facilitating mobility of the disadvantaged are the public schools, LIFT, and housing authorities serving low income families. The public schools as they have become completely integrated created a number of innovative programs to improve instruction especially for the disadvantaged. Innovative education programs include those focusing on individual instruction, team teaching, new methods of teaching the language arts and mathematics, "enrichment programs," and supervised play activities.

LIFT, approved in the early days of the Economic Opportunity Act, was planned and originally sponsored by the CDF. In the five years since its establishment, LIFT has received approximately $10 million for its varied programs. One of the most recent activities is the 4-C program, Community Coordinated Child Care, the first to be established in the nation in a nonmetropolitan area. The 4-C program has a number of goals. All of these are "aimed at a concerted effort to provide both public and private child care for pre-schoolers." Relevant here also is the support by individuals, churches, and other local groups for day care centers. You will visit tomorrow an entirely locally-sponsored venture of this type.

Tupelo was the first town in the state to have an urban renewal program. It has set as a goal the elimination of all substandard housing in the city within five years. In addition, a ten-county rural housing authority has been created to provide homes for low income families.

Vocational Training as a Community Enterprise: Some Issues and Problems

Perhaps the major problem for vocational training agencies, if they are to become community enterprises, is that of coordination. They must not only perfect effective coordination among themselves but also relate their services to other community agencies and groups. An important ingredient in coordination and development is that of voluntary participation.

Advisory committees to vocational groups have frequently not been too successful, but extensive volunteer participation in planning and executing training programs is essential if these efforts are to be community in nature.

A second problem deals with the placement of trainees. In a decentralized community such as Tupelo with small industries, people with minimum competencies can often "place themselves." Study is needed of the relative importance and contributions of informal versus formal types of job placement. A serious problem of placement may arise when a suitable job is not available in one's home community and an individual and his family must relocate. Here some formal mechanism is needed but is frequently lacking.

An overview of the world of work in Tupelo presents a relatively complex picture. How to orient and relate people to jobs will always be a major concern of educational agencies. One might contend that general job orientation is the primary role of educational agencies and that specific training should be left to those agencies directly related to employment opportunities.

It is obvious that vocational education cannot carry out the task of job training and placement alone, even for a limited population. If vocational educators are to realize their goals, they must closely relate their programs to those of other educational institutions and to agencies of the community as a whole. The challenge is for vocational educators to join the community team!

National Inservice Training Multiple Institutes for Vocational and Related Personnel in Rural Areas.

Thursday, July 23, 1970
Tupelo, Mississippi

10:00 a.m.	Tour--Palmetto Day Care Center------Alice Little
	Windshield Tour of Job Center, Housing and other Points of Interest
12:15 p.m.	Lunch-----John A. Rasberry, Presiding Community Center
	Welcome------Mayor James Ballard Keynote Address--Mr. George McLean, Publisher The Daily Journal
1:30 p.m.	Program
	Follow Through and Special Education-----Dr. C. E. Holladay & Associates Tupelo Public Schools
1:40 p.m.	Day Care & 4-C Program--Mr. Jack McDaniel, Director Lift, Inc.
1:50 p.m.	Housing----Mr. Harry Rutherford, Chairman Tupelo Housing Authority
2:00 p.m.	Vocational Rehabilitation and Services Available to Disabled----John A. Rasberry, Regional Rehabilitation
2:15 p.m.	Special Education in County Schools---Mr. Leroy Bell Lee County Superintendent of Education
2:30 p.m.	Questions and Answers
2:45 p.m.	Depart for tour of Vo-Tech School---Larry Otis
3:15 p.m.	Depart for tour of Regional Rehabilitation Center John A. Rasberry
4:00 p.m.	Adjourn

Personalized Vocationally Oriented Education for Rural Disadvantaged Families

David L. Williams *

The planning and conducting of effective educational programs for the socially and economically disadvantaged has puzzled educators for many years. The efforts of school and nonschool agencies have been equally unsuccessful in providing meaningful occupational education for disadvantaged youth and adults. During the decade of the sixties, federal legislative action was taken in an attempt to help educators plan and initiate vocational programs that will meet the needs of disadvantaged citizens residing in depressed rural areas as well as those living in urban centers.

The formulation of this national institute entitled, "Expanding Vocational Education Curriculums to Meet the Needs of Disadvantaged Youth and Adults in Rural Areas," demonstrates the concern of national educational leaders for the disadvantaged, and your participation in the institute demonstrates state and local concern for meaningful occupational education for the rural disadvantaged.

Why have educational programs failed to develop occupational competency among disadvantaged youth and adults in rural areas? Research studies have identified some problems or failures in planning and conducting vocational education programs for the socially and economically disadvantaged. Five problems are as follows:

1. Failure to obtain the attention of deprived rural families. The disadvantaged have not been involved in planning programs to meet their own needs (10).
2. Failure to create readiness for learning. Activities have not been included in the educational programs that would encourage the disadvantaged to analyze their present situation and develop realistic individual and family goals (1) (5).
3. Failure to recognize the importance of family ties. Educators have not recognized the family as the basic educational unit (2) (6).
4. Failure to help disadvantaged family members assess their problems, define their objectives, identify possible alternatives for solving their problems, and take action to accomplish their predetermined goals (4) (7) (8).
5. Failure to involve lay citizens, at all economic levels, in the development of educational programs (10).

---

* Dr. Williams is Associate Professor, Department of Vocational and Technical Education, College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois.

Overview of Project REDY *

Recognizing these "stumbling blocks" in program development for the rural disadvantaged, a research project commonly referred to as Project REDY (Rural Education--Disadvantaged Youth) was conceived by members of the Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Illinois. The five-year project sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education, and which ended June 30, 1970, focused upon the development of a family-centered, vocationally oriented educational program that would bring about the full utilization of the present and potential capabilities of severely disadvantaged youth living in economically depressed rural areas. Project REDY was divided into five correlated phases as follows:

1. Phase I, Community Study. The first phase of Project REDY focused upon an in-depth study of the characteristics of a random sample of all families residing in the economically depressed rural area in which the model educational program was later tried out.
2. Phase II, Study of the Rural Disadvantaged. The second phase of Project REDY focused upon an in-depth study of the characteristics of the families residing in the study area who were considered to be severely disadvantaged both socially and economically.
3. Phase III, Development of a Model Educational Program. The third phase of Project REDY dealt with the development of a tentative model family-centered, vocationally oriented educational program, the application of the model program in a community, and the revision of the model educational program into a form which could be tested in the exemplar phase of the study.
4. Phase IV, Demonstration and Evaluation of Model Educational Program. This phase involved the experimental demonstration and evaluation of the model educational program developed as a result of the Phase III effort.
5. Phase V, Analysis of Data and Reporting Findings. The fifth and final phase of Project REDY included the activities related to the final analysis of data and the reporting of findings.

These major segments of the research project will direct the remainder of this paper.

---

* The research reported herein was performed as Project No. 5-0125 under the titla "Development of Human Resources Through a Vocataionally Oriented Educational Program for Disadvantaged Families in Depressed Rural Areas" pursuant to Contract No. OEG-09-585041-0773 (085) with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Publications resulting from the research project are listed at the end of this paper.

Rural Community Study

One of the first activities of the research study was the identification of the depressed rural areas in Illinois. Twenty economically depressed counties were identified using data drawn from United States census reports on the following dimensions:

1. Median annual family income.
2. Number of rural families.
3. Number of rural families with annual income of less than $3,000.
4. Number of rural families with annual income of less than $2,000.
5. Number of rural families with annual income of less than $1,000.

Communities were selected to participate in various phases of the research. One community was selected for an in-depth study of the characteristics of families residing in the area. Two random samples were drawn from the population in the study area, one sample was representative of all families living in the area and the other sample was representative of the socially and economically disadvantaged families residing in the area. Families were considered disadvantaged when their annual net family income was $3,000 or less, and when identified as being socially oreconomically disadvantaged by state or local welfare agencies.

Data-gathering instruments used to study the characteristics of rural families or in other parts of the research included the following standardized instruments:

1. Community Solidarity Index Schedue l by Donald R. Fessler (3) -- Measures a person's opinion regarding certain aspects of community life.
2. Minnesota Survey of Opinion (Short Form) by E. A. Runquist and R. F. Sletto (3)--measures a person's morale and general adjustment in the community.
3. Sims SCI Occupational Rating Scale by Verner M. Sims (9)-- reveals the social class with which a person identifies.
4. Wants and Satisfaction Scale by Edgar C. McVoy (3)--measures the wants of individuals and the degree to which the people feel their wants are being satisfied.
5. Your Leisure Time Activities by C. R. Pace (3)-- measures the degree to which people use and enjoy their leisure time.

The following instruments were developed and used in one or more phases of the research:

1. Schedule I, Parental Desires for their Children.
2. Schedule II, Occupations and Organizations of Parents.
3. Schedule III, Situation and Goals of Children Age Twelve and Over Living at Home.
4. Schedule IV, Situation and Goals of Family.
5. Schedule V, The Farm Business.
6. Schedule VI, The Home and Its Surroundings
7. Family Data Record, collected data related to residence, income, ancestry, and family.
8. School Data Form, collected data related to school grades and attendance.

Characteristics of Rural Disadvantaged Families

To gain an understanding of the values, beliefs, attitudes, and behavioral patterns of severely disadvantaged families, selected characteristics were compared between a random sample of the total population of families. A brief description of the characteristics of severely disadvantaged rural families is presented in this section.

The size of the severely disadvantaged families was frequently large compared to other families in the area studied. Four or more children per family were common, with a majority of them living at home. Compared to other families in the area studied, severely disadvantaged families had fewer family members who contributed cash income to the family.

The parents of severely disadvantaged families were commonly less than 50 years of age. The adult family members frequently had less than an eighth-grade education and only a few had earned a high school diploma. The severely disadvantaged families were not mobile. Over one-half of the parents still resided within the same county where they were born, and over three-fourths still lived within the state where they were born.

The educational attainment of out-of-school children of severely disadvantaged families patterned that of their parents who had not normally completed a high school education. Even though most of the young people had secured employment, more frequently in nonagricultural businesses than agriculturally oriented jobs, many had jobs that were temporary in nature and that required only limited skills.

Compared to other families residing in the rural area studied, the severely disadvantaged families generally lived in older more dilapidated houses that frequently lacked one or more of the conveniences of electricity, telephone, and indoor bathroom. Less than one-half of the severely disadvantaged families included in the study had functional bathrooms in the family dwelling. Even though a majority of the disadvantaged families owned the residence where they lived, they were still in great need of major maintenance and repair. The home furnishings were generally in very poor condition and the yard and surrounding area were generally trashy and unkept.

Most of the disadvantaged family dwellings were located outside the boundaries of towns and villages and away from the main arteries of travel in the county. The homes were often located along unimproved roads in remote areas and their presence was frequently unknown by the more affluent neighbors living nearby. A majority of the severely disadvantaged rural families operated a farm business. However, only one in ten farms operated by severely disadvantaged families produced more than one-half of the family income. The farms were small and frequently poorly managed, and contributed only limited family income.

Many of the farm operators and other family members had found part-time off-farm employment, or had obtained public financial assistance to help support their families. The children commonly contributed to the family income by working on the home farm. However, this work

did not generate large amounts of income because of the lack of competent management and the insufficient scope of the farm enterprises. Livestock and field crops, typical to the area, were commonly raised on the farms. However, some farmers were trying to produce products that were not adapted to their area. Only a few of the families raised vegetables and fruits for family consumption.

A majority of adult members, parents and older children, of severely disadvantaged families living at home were employed in an agricultural occupation. A large group was attempting to make a living for their family with limited acres of productive land, inadequate capital, and lack of business management skills. Labor was generally available, but was frequently not utilized advantageously due to lack of other production resources. Adult family members commonly recognized their inability to successfully compete with the more progressive farmers in the community. Adults also recognized that their lack of education and skills handicapped them in competing for employment in off-farm agricultural firms and other businesses that required specialized knowledges and skills.

The severely disadvantaged families residing in the depressed rural area studied tended to associate themselves with lower social classes; middle working, working, and lower working. They were, in general, dissatisfied with the opportunities available to them for fulfilling their wants when compared to the average family. Life in the depressed rural area was least satisfying to the families as a whole in terms of: (1) availablility of opportunity to satisfy wants related to residence and family welfare, (2) quality of items related to the residence, and (3) quality of items related to consumer goods.

Aspects of community life that received a relatively high rating by severely disadvantaged families included: (1) community spirit, (2) interpersonal relations, (3) family responsibility, (4) schools, (5) churches, and (6) tension areas. Economic behavior in the community and the local government both received a low rating by the severely disadvantaged families when compared to other families in the study area and other areas of community life.

Severely disadvantaged families were less well adjusted to their environment than a sample of families that represented all socioeconomic levels. Likewise, the morale of deprived families was lower than other families in the study area. Fewer of the severely disadvantaged families than other families in the community participated in the leisure time activities studied. Their frequency of participation was less, and they did not enjoy their participation as much.

The Educational Program

The needs of severely disadvantaged rural family members directed the development of the vocationally oriented, family-centered educational program. Based on these needs, objectives, units of instructions, teaching topics and anticipated problem areas were identified and incorporated into an overall program plan. The educational program focused upon three major units: (1) determining realistic career choices and

plans for the children, (2) improving family financial management, and (3) improving family income.

Based on objectives of the units and needs of the rural disadvantaged, teaching topics and anticipated problem areas were identified and incorporated into an overall program plan. Topics included in the educational program were:

1. Understanding the high school occupational training and guidance program.
2. Identifying educational and training agencies in the community and state.
3. Helping family members establish education and occupational goals.
4. Helping youth through community action programs.
5. Analyzing family expenditures.
6. Establishing long-range family financial goals.
7. Developing family financial plans.
8. Developing financial plans and using business and family records.
9. Adjusting family resources to increase family income.
10. Using credit wisely.
11. Utilizing community service.
12. Reviewing and revising family goals.

A single school district in a depressed rural area was utilized to initially try out the educational program. Families in the community with special needs were identified. These families were randomly assigned to an experimental group and two control groups. Various instruments were employed as a pretest-posttest measure to gather data that afforded an objective evaluation of the REDY educational program. In addition, the local coordinator provided subjective evaluation as he conducted the pilot program. Data from both of these sources guided the development of the educational program that was later conducted and evaluated on a larger scale.

Prior to conducting the vocationally oriented educational program in a local school, specific action was taken to (1) identify disadvantaged rural families in the community, (2) establish rapport with family members, and (3) motivate families to cooperate by participating in the educational activities. Identification of families, gaining attention of family members, and family motivation were three important activities conducted as a part of the initiation stage of the occupationally oriented, family-centered educational program.

The Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, provided assistance to the cooperating school in the form of source units, teaching plans, selected visual aids, and program evaluation. In addition, staff members were available for consultation throughout the duration of the program.

The school recognized the REDY Educational Program as a part of the adult education program of the agricultural occupations department. The program was conducted as a part of the local secondary school's

effort to improve education in the community. The agricultural occupations instructor served as the local coordinator and instructor.

Family members, adults and children over 12 years of age, in the experimental educational program were encouraged to attend the 12 group meetings conducted approximately once each month. The problems and concerns of participants directed the educational activities. The local coordinator generally followed the comprehensive teaching plans provided in conducting the educational activities, but adapted the plans to meet the needs of his particular group. After each group meeting, the local coordinator made an instructional visit to the home of each family enrolled in the program to personalize the instruction.

Group meetings were usually held at the local school, but the coordinator was free to conduct group meetings in homes or other preferred locations. Meeting times and dates were set to accommodate the families involved. Group meetings usually lasted from two to three hours. Home visits were commonly two hours, but ranged from one to three hours, depending upon the interest and needs of the family. During group meetings and the follow-up home visits, the coordinator encouraged each family to establish realistic goals that would improve family conditions. Throughout the program family members were urged to take action to accomplish their goals.

Excluding the summer months, coordinators normally conducted one group meeting per month and visited each family in their home at least one time each month. The major events in initiating and conducting the REDY Educational Program included:

1. Securing cooperation of school.
2. Identifying families.
3. Selecting and motivating families.
4. Conducting educational activities.

In addition to the objective evaluation provided by analyzing the pretest-post test data collected from the experimental and control groups, the educational activities were subjected to continuous evaluation by the local coordinator and the researchers. The program that served effectively in reaching a few disadvantaged families in one school district was modified according to findings observed in the pilot activities and recommended for expanded application and evaluation.

Evaluation of the Educational Program

The vocationally oriented, family-centered educational program, which was developed and tried out in a single community, was expanded to include five additional communities. The research design employed was a pretest-post test control group design with five replications. Ten communities selected to participate in the study were paired on *a priori* decision based on community census data. One community of each matched pair was randomly assigned to the experimental group. A random sample of ten or more families was drawn from the disadvantaged population in each of the ten research communities.

The REDY Educational Program served as the treatment for the families in the experimental community. The instruments discussed earlier were employed to collect pretest and posttest data used to establish the degree of similarity between the experimental and control group families prior to the treatment and to evaluate the effectiveness of the educational program. Analysis of variance, chi square, and analysis of covariance statistics were employed to analyze the data.

The findings concerning the effectiveness of the REDY Educational Program will be presented in parts that correspond to the general areas measured by the instruments employed in the research.

Parental Desires for Their Children

It was ascertained that the experimental group parents desired to leave the occupational choice of their children up to the child whereas the control group tended to respond that they did not know what occupation they desired for their children. Significant differences in response patterns for occupations the parents desired for their children were obtained only for the third from the oldest child.

There was a significant difference in the level of education that the parents in the treatment groups desired for their oldest child. A higher percentage of the experimental group had educational aspirations of "specialized vocational" and "two-year college." A lower frequency of experimental group parents desired educational levels of "high school" or left the decision of level of education "up to the child" as compared to the control group. Thus, it appeared that the educational program which encouraged parents to establish realistic educational goals for their children, had a favorable effect on the educational aspirations of the parents for their children.

The educational program also included the establishment of realistic goals for the level of income parents desired for their children when they became adults. The level of income classification was found to be a function of the treatment group for the parents' desires for sons, but not their daughters. A higher percentage of the parents in the experimental group as compared to the control group wanted their sons to earn an income that was between $6,001 and $10,000. The control group tended to indicate that they did not know or did not respond as to what level of income they desired for their sons. Thus, it appeared that the experimental group parents had established realistic goals for their sons' annual income.

Parental desires for the location of residences for their children when they became adults were found to be a function of the treatment group. A higher percentage of the experimental group parents left the decision of the locations of the residence up to the child as compared to the control group parents who tended to want their children to live in a rural area near them. Hence, the effect of the educational program appeared to be toward an increase in the willingness of the parents to allow their children to get away from home in order to acquire jobs which would provide them with an adequate living. This decrease in the limitation that parents imposed on their children could provide economic mobility as well as geographic mobility.

A significantly higher proportion of the experimental group parents as compared to the control group parents were able to estimate the annual cost of postsecondary education for their children. A majority of the parents estimated the annual cost of postsecondary education to be between $500 and $2,000. Considering that the nature of postsecondary education would determine the degree of accuracy of the parents' estimates, it appeared that these estimates were realistic. A significantly higher percentage of the parents in the experimental group as compared to the control group estimated that up to 25 percent of the postsecondary educational expenses would be defrayed by scholarships.

Occupations and Organizations of Parents

Significantly different patterns of responses were observed for new job skills acquired by the husbands, other kinds of jobs desired by the husbands, wives' participation in community organizations, and husbands' participation in job-related organizations.

More husbands in the experimental group than in the control group reported learning new agricultural and business skills. Approximately 38 percent of the husbands receiving the educational program learned new skills compared to approximately 18 percent of the control group.

A disproportionate number of the husbands in the experimental group wanted to obtain a different job than the one they held at the time of the posttest. Thus, it appeared that they were more dissatisfied with their situation. About 40 percent of the experimental group wanted a different job compared to 25 percent of the control group. A high percentage of the husbands in the experimental group desired another job in agriculture.

A significant trend toward participating in groups and organizations was observed for both the husbands and wives in the experimental group as compared to the control group. More wives in the experimental group than in the control group participated in community organizations. Twenty percent of the wives in the experimental group participated in civic, fraternal or political organizations in the community compared to 10 percent of the control group.

A higher percentage of the husbands in the experimental group as compared to the control group participated in job-related organizations. Although this participation was reported as being rare or occasional, it was considered to be a move back into the mainstream of community life. Significant differences were not found for the type of occupation in which the husband was employed, new job skills acquired by the wives, other kinds of jobs desired by the wives, husbands' participation in civic, fraternal or political organizations, and wives' participation in job-related organizations.

Situation and Goals of Children

Significant differences in the field of employment desired by children for a lifetime career was found between the experimental and control groups. Almost one-fourth of the control group as compared to about 16 percent of the experimental group did not know what job they desired for a lifetime career.

The occupational orientation segment of the educational program was effective in helping children identify the job they desired for a lifetime career, and in determining the training required for entry into their chosen occupation. Many of the participants in the experimental group realized that acceptable jobs could be obtained in their community if they had the necessary training.

Realizing that specialized or advanced training was required for many of the jobs desired, participants established goals for the level of education they should attain. After participating in the educational program, slightly over 90 percent of the children were aware of ways and means of financing the training or education they desired as compared with 79 percent of the control group.

At the end of the educational program, children had established goals for the income level which they aspired to earn as adults. The income goals appeared to be realistic in light of the educational and occupational goals established and which, if accomplished, would provide a respectable living for a family. Over one-third of the control as compared to only eight percent of the experimental group indicated that they did not know what income they desired for their future job.

Significant differences in responses were not observed for variables related to educational and employment situations of children, orientation of desires, and participation in community functions. Likewise, significant differences were not observed in school grades received by children, or school attendance patterns.

Situation and Goals of the Family

Included in the educational program was a unit of instruction on improving the family income. Avenues for improving the family's income were explored, but the decision as to which alternative(s) would be adopted was the responsibility of each family.

Participation in the educational program seemed to make family members aware of their poor economic situation, and several families took steps to mitigate their situation. Significant positive changes were observed in the behavior of family members in the experimental group as compared to the control group for certain variables related to family financial matters.

Almost 50 percent of the experimental group families had an additional member of the family obrain a job and another 21 percent had planned to have another member of the family acquire a job. In comparison, only about 20 percent of the families in the control group had an

additional family member obtain a job and an additional four percent that had made plans for another family member to secure a job.

Some families recognized that the production of home-raised products could improve their financial situation. Fifty-four percent of the experimental group compared to 28 percent of the control group had either planned, started, or expanded the production of home-raised products for family consumption.

The development of shopping list, elimination of nonessential items, keeping records of expenditures and budgeting were recognized by families as avenues to improve their financial situation. A higher proportion of the experimental group than the control group changed or made plans to change their procedures for budgeting the amount spent for certain items in order to re-allocate the family income to accomplish established goals.

A trend was observed for the experimental group as compared to the control group to use the services provided by public agencies available in their community as a means for upgrading their environmental conditions. Significant changes were observed for the use of services provided by the school, Office of Economic Opportunity, and the employment service.

Significant differences in the treatment groups were not observed for changes made in farming activities, education or training acquired, or the use of borrowed money. The short periods of time between the pretest and posttest prohibited the measure of change that many have resulted for some variables had the interval been extended.

The Home and Its Surroundings

Participation in the educational program and the association with people in the community encouraged families to improve their living environment. Although the improvements were not drastic, many families did repair or remodel at least some part of their residence and acquired better furnishings. Thirty-eight percent of the experimental group as compared to ten percent of the control group had repaired or remodeled at least some part of their residence.

A more obvious improvement was made in the yard and surroundings. The change toward having a neat orderly yard and surroundings was considered a change toward re-entering the mainstream of community life. Fifty-three percent of the experimental group families compared to 23 percent of the control group had made improvements in their yards and surroundings during the year prior to the posttest.

The Family and Community

Preliminary findings of Project REDY revealed that disadvantaged rural families were frequently dissatisfied with some aspects of family living. Although not statistically significant, families who participated in the educational program, as compared to families who received no treatment, exhibited (1) higher level of participation in leisure time activities, (2) improved attitude toward social behavior in their communities, and (3) a feeling of greater deprivement. The educational program had

very little effect on the perceived social class of participants.

After completing the REDY Educational Program, participating adult family members exhibited a significantly better morale and general adjustment than family members in the control group. The total morale-adjusted mean for the experimental group was 53.7 as compared to an adjusted mean score of 58.13 for the control group with the lower score indicating a higher morale.

The adjusted treatment means for the experimental and control groups were 38.8 and 48.2, respectively, with the lower score indicating the better general adjustment.

The improvement in general adjustment and morale indicated that family members were motivated to improve their situation, or at least had hopes that their children could eventually break out of the chains of poverty.

It may be concluded that the educational program was effective in improving the attitude of adult family members toward the family, self-concept, and community. Positive attitudes and a desire for improvement must be developed before disadvantaged family members will take steps to change their existing situation.

Summary

This paper included a summary of a comprehensive research project that was concerned with the development of an educational program for the rural disadvantaged. In developing the REDY Educational Program, six significant steps were involved. These steps, which have implications for planning any educational program, included: (1) recognition of the problems involved in planning and conducting educational programs for the disadvantaged, (2) identification of the clientele, disadvantaged rural families, (3) understanding the characteristics and needs of the clientele, (4) development of an educational program on the basis of need, (5) implementation of the educational program, and (6) evaluation of the educational program.

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions appear worthy of consideration by educators and others who are responsible for developing education and community action programs for the socially and economically disadvantaged:

1. Socially and economically disadvantaged families can be identified in a geographical area, their needs and characteristics determined, and educational programs developed that are responsive to the needs of individuals.

2. When teaching adults and children who are disadvantaged, the educator should plan a program that gives primary attention to the needs of his students.

3. The formerly unreachable severely disadvantaged rural families can be motivated to improve their social and economic situation through a sincere interest by educators in the future of youth.

4. Educational programs that will acquaint the disadvantaged with the world of work, jobs available, nature of the work, and training required, is needed by children and parents alike.

5. The disadvantaged can be motivated by the use of "goal seeking" techniques; however, the goals must be molecular and not global in nature.

6. Disadvantaged people are aware of their problems, but desperately need a systematic approach to their solution.

7. Effective education for the disadvantaged required personalized instruction. Individuals living in a depressed area require constant reinforcements if they are to continue action to accomplish goals established and improve their situation.

8. Since some families cherish living in the rural environment, upgrading and retraining for adults must be provided for occupations available within their community.

9. The needs of disadvantaged families make them very responsive to education related to family financial management, family goals, and the choice-making process as it pertains to consumer goods and services.

10. The vocationally oriented, family-centered educational program developed and evaluated in this research project has potential use, in whole or in part, in rural and urban areas that have concentration of disadvantaged families.

The REDY Educational Program which focused on the needs of youth, served effectively as a vehicle to reach a small segment of the disadvantaged rural families in Illinois. The warm response given by a majority of the participating families to the sincere interest shown in them by the local educator indicated that rural disadvantaged families wanted and needed assistance. With proper motivation and a personalized educational program, many rural disadvantaged families' members may establish realistic educational and occupational goals and take action to accomplish these goals as a means of breaking out of the chains of poverty.

Selected References

1. Douvan, Elizabeth. "Social Status and Success Striving," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 52, No. 2 (March 1956), pp. 219-23.

2. Kohn, Melvin L., "Social Class and the Exercise of Parental Authority," American Sociological Review, Vol. 24, No. 3 (June 1959), pp. 352-66.

3. Miller, Delbert C. Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement, New York: David McKay Company, 1964.

4. Miller, Donald R. and Guy E. Swanson. Inner Conflict and Defense, New York: Henry Holt, 1960.

5. Phipps, Lloyd J. Comprehensive Young Farmer Programs, A Case-Group Study. Agricultural Education Division, University of Illinois, 1959.

6. Riessman, Frank. The Culturally Deprived Child. New York: Harper and Row, 1962.

7. Rodman, Hyman. "On Understanding Lower Class Behavior," Social and Economic Studies, Vol. 8, No. 4 (December 1959) pp. 441-50.

8. Siller, Jerome. "Socio-Economic Status and Conceptual Thinking," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 55, No. 3 (November 1957) pp. 365-71.

9. Sims, Verner M. Sims SCI Occupational Rating Scale Manual of Directions, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1952.

10. U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Training the Hard-Core Unemployed, A Demonstration-Research Project at Virginia State College, Norfolk Division (Cooperative Research Monograph No. 13), Washington: Government Printing Office, 1964.

Publications Resulting from Project REDY

Fuller, Gerald R. and Lloyd J. Phipps. Development of Human Resources Through a Vocationally Oriented Educational Program for Disadvantaged Families in Depressed Rural Areas. Interim Report No. 1. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, September 1968, 34 pp.

Fuller, Gerald R. and Lloyd J. Phipps. Development of Human Resources Through a Vocationally Oriented Educational Program for Disadvantaged Families in Depressed Rural Areas. Interim Report No. 2. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, September 1968, 13 pp.

Fuller, Gerald R. and Lloyd J. Phipps. Degree to Which Families are Satisfied with Selected Aspects of Family Life in an Economically Depressed Rural Area. Interim Report No. 3. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, September 1968, 18 pp.

Williams, David L. Community Social Behavior of Families in an Economically Depressed Rural Area. Interim Report No. 4. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, April 1970, 12 pp.

Phipps, Lloyd J. Leisure Time Activities of Families in an Economically Depressed Rural Area. Interim Report No. 5, Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, April 1970, 14 pp.

Thomas, Hollie B. Morale of Families in an Economically Depressed Rural Area. Interim Report No. 6. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, April 1970, 12 pp.

Phipps, Lloyd J., David L. Williams, and Hollie B. Thomas. A Family Centered Vocationally Oriented Educational Program for Disadvantaged Families in Depressed Rural Areas. Interim Report No. 7. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, April 1970, 287 pp.

Phipps, Lloyd J., Hollie B. Thomas and David L. Williams. A Family Centered Vocationally Oriented Educational Program for Disadvantaged Families in Depressed Rural Areas. A Final Report to the U. S. Office of Education. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, June 1970, 650 pp.

Williams, David L., Lloyd J. Phipps, and Hollie B. Thomas. Characteristics of Disadvantaged Families Residing in Depressed Rural Areas. A Research Report. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, July 1970, 43 pp.

Phipps, Lloyd J., Gerald R. Fuller, David L. Williams, and Hollie B. Thomas. Socioeconomic Aspects of Family Life in a Depressed Rural Area. A Research Report. Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, July 1970, 58 pp.

Thomas, Hollie B., Lloyd J. Phipps, and David L. Williams. Educational Program Development for the Rural Disadvantaged. A Research Report. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, July 1970, 51 pp.

Thomas,Hollie B., Lloyd J. Phipps, and David L. Williams. Evaluation of an Educational Program for the Rural Disadvantaged. A Research Report. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, July 1970, 106 pp.

Williams, David L., Lloyd J. Phipps, and Hollie B. Thomas. Education for the Rural Disadvantaged: Summary of Findings and Conclusions of an Experimental Study. A Research Report. Urbana, Illinois: Vocational and Technical Education Department, University of Illinois, July 1970, 37 pp.

Successful Innovative Techniques and Strategies In Programs for Training Disadvantaged Persons

Chrystine R. Shack*

Before sharing some thoughts, some projections, and some doubts with you, I would like to extend my compliments to the several establishments who have come together to talk about the problems of broader educational opportunity for disadvantaged youth and adults, whether in rural or urban communities. I would suggest that these two populations bear strikingly similar commonalities.

Education with all its variables and dimensions, more often than not, looms as a community problem and is always a community responsibility. There is something about community problems which is devilishly difficult to work out. For every solution of such a problem you usually create another. Cure one man's difficulty and you complicate another man's life. For example, give the big city commuter a more convenient way into the city by high speed transport, and you have probably knocked a lot of recent migrants out of their only available shelter. Find the money to put an amenity into one man's town and very likely you have withdrawn it from another and left him in discomfiture. So, there is no perfect solution to a community problem of educational opportunity.

The implication of pessimism or defeatism is not our intent. Certainly we make headway with any problem when we confront all its complications and every interest competing for its solution. Therefore, I am glad to see the problem of rural education now being confronted with its reciprocal, the problem or urban education, and for us who bring expertise from both environments to face a common dilemma.

In that same mood, perhaps a good beginning might be to wipe out of our minds today, the jurisdiction (states, counties, cities, districts and the rest) which divide us within education. Let's also break down the restrictive organizational patterns, the administrative heirarchy and the fragmented departmental lines. Let's concern ourselves, instead, with the problems of education in its totality. We cannot siphon off a single element, a single problematic feature, even the compensatory treatment of rural youth and adults in the area of vocational education. Rather, our thinking must be comprehensive when we set about the task of eliminating the inequities in educational opportunity which relate to this population.

---

* Mrs. Chrystine Shack is Director of Program Development, New Jersey Urban Schools Development Council, Trenton, New Jersey.

If substantial impact is to be made on the problem of programs for the disadvantaged, stereotypes, too, must be abandoned. Eddington (1970) has given considerable time and effort to identifying the so-called disadvantaged rural youth. He speaks of characteristics which are unique to him and his situation. Among the postulated of Eddington are:

(1) that rurality by its very nature (imposing isolation and poverty) may have caused pupils to be disadvantaged,
(2) that the incidence of incentive to remain in high school or in college was evidently not as great in rural America, as shown by the high dropout rate (ackerson 1967),
(3) that in all too many cases, the educational and vocational opportunities offered to rural youth people were quite limited (Ackerson 1967).

It is difficult to make even these broad generalizations concerning disadvantaged rural students. Certainly the endemic populations of the mountain Appalachian region, the Southern rural white and Negro, the American Indians, or the Spanish-speaking youth of the Southwest have special problems but are these problems exclusive to those populations? Do we find among the urban disadvantaged that same poverty and a markedly pronounced degree of isolation? Do we find a lack of motivation and incentive to remain in school with a resultant high dropout rate? Do we not find a serious void in the educational and vocational opportunities afforded the urban disadvantaged? Do we not find the same factors influencing the development, the education and the ultimate <u>success</u> of all disadvantaged? Could we not find the <u>students</u> to whom our concerns are directed today in El Centrol, California in Newburgh, New York or in Horn Lake, Mississippi? The point of insistence here is that the problems experienced by the rural disadvantaged are by no means limited to geographic location - they are not confined to any one section of the United States. They are very real in Appalachia and Alaska, in the Mississippi Delta and the Midwest, in New England and California.

Given this commonly identifiable disadvantaged student, let us be about the comprehensive task of designing programs that are all-encompassing. This should provoke our thinking or early foundations, preventive education, compensatory education, training for non-school age learners, and supplemental adult training.

It is, likewise, invalid to consider only the population identification. Rather, having identified the population, we must look at the fallacies of curriculum. Accenting the need for curriculum concern, several researchers have pointed up the inadequacy of curricula to prepare rural students, especially those from disadvantaged homes, for higher education or employment. Mercure (1967) reported that most rural schools did not have the resources not the creativity to develop programs designed to enable rural minority youth to relate to the broader United States environment. He felt that consolidated rural school systems could work out more appropriate programs and curriculums for these students. Jenkins (1963), Lindstrom (1967) and Ohlendorf and Kuvlesky (1967) advanced the idea of up-grading vocational education programs for youth. Jenkins opinioned that a major need in dealing with what he termed "rebellious, rural youth" was to give them a stake in the social order by helping them

acquire vocational skills. Moreover, their present educational offerings are almost totally limited to the academic while the vocational training is most frequently limited to agricultural training - a pattern which does not meet the need of the majority or rural youth who must move into business and industry. Research by Lindstrom substantiated the finding that rural youth migrating to the city had gained no training in high school which prepared them for the job opportunities most frequently available in the city. Interestingly, Ohlendorf and Kuvlesky (1967) found that large numbers of rural youth residing in low-income areas, especially Negroes, want and expect to attain higher levels of education. It follows then, that if rural students are to gain the preparation necessary to meet these expectations and ultimately participate fully in society, more adequate curriculum and facilities must be provided.

A vocational training model which is commanding widespread attention is that of mobile training units. Such units are utilized in New Jersey for specialized vocational training in industrial occupations, and office occupations. Other units have been instituted for diognostic and remedial learning purposes as well as the provision of health services. Permit me to share a verbal picture of the industrial and office occupations units with you.

MOBILE INDUSTRIAL TRAINING UNIT
(State Department of Education, Trenton)

The Mobile Industrial Training Unit is a pilot project sponsored by the State of New Jersey, Department of Education, and funded jointly by the Divisions of Vocational Educational and Curriculum and Instruction through its Educational Programs for Seasonal and Migrant Families. It is designed to provide exposure, training, and evaluation for students with special needs (those having academic, socio-economic or other handicaps) for adults, and for school dropouts.

By operating on the philosophy of exposure, training, and evaluation, a transition is provided for students from school to the world of work. This transition is brought about by the learning of new skills and good work habits and by the development of positive attitudes and values essential for a more productive and happier life.

The mobile unit is a custom designed trailer 60 feet long and 10 feet wide, containing its own air conditioning and heating system. The unit can be moved throughout the State and be put into operation in one day. It contains a complete conveyor system and equipment including a time clock, automatic tape dispensers, quality control scales, and a built-in Am/Fm radio and intercom system. The same area is converted into a classroom within fifteen minutes for general instruction.

The classroom is equipped with all types of instructional materials such as closed circuit TV, a movie projector, screens, record player, film strip and slide projectors, blackboards, bulletin boards, calculating machines for solving work production problems, and other classroom equipment. In addition to the working-classroom area, there is an office space which measures 9' x 9' and which is used for interviewing, counseling, and program preparation.

During the regular school year the unit travels to ten different school districts serving as many as 36 individuals at each location for a period of one month. During the summer months, it travels to five different locations serving as many as 36 individuals at each location for a period of two weeks. The students are trained in industrial procedures, techniques, and practices. All of this training is conducted by one coordinator/instructor and one assistant.

The first phase of training deals with the job application. In this phase the students learn how to obtain information about jobs and sources of jobs. A formal application is first filled out by the student. This is followed by a phone call made to a company for the purpose of requesting a formal interview. (Arrangements are made in advance with a specific business or industry in each location to obtain a personnel specialist to interview students.)

The second phase deals with the simulated interview. This is a true-to-life situation because the students are interviewed in the office area of the trailer and are asked pertinent questions concerning their application. During the interview a video tape is made, and afterwards played back to the student. During the playback, the interviewer analyzes and evaluates the entire process. After a time lapse of about one-half day, the student is notified that he has been hired and is told to report for a physical examination. He then reports to work, is given manual dexterity test, and assigned a work station.

The third phase is the performance of assigned duties at the mobile industrial site. The practical work experience is made possible through the fulfillment of contract agreements with companies such as Creative Playthings, Shulton Laboratories (cosmetics, drugs, and dispensers), and Volupte. Assembly and packaging operations constitute a great measure of the work involvement.

The training includes the following topics (lectures and practical work):

time recording devices
time and work schedules
the importance of punctuality and the results of tardiness
receiving and checking of goods
unloading of trucks and proper use of hand trucks and tracks
stocking and servicing of production lines
assembly line principles, practices, and procedures
actual conducting of interview
sorting, labeling and packing
quality control
time study
shipping procedures and loading of trucks
business forms - shipping, receiving, invoice, etc.
computation of pay
budgeting and banking
consumer knowledge
attitude development

Each week the student is given a non-negotiable check to familiarize him with payroll deductions and pay procedures.

The fourth and final phase is that of evaluation. Each student is evaluated on a daily basis. To make these evaluations more effective, counseling sessions are held periodically, during which the students are allowed to express themselves and relate any problems that might be confronting them, or offer suggestions that might make the program more meaningful to them. In addition to relating problems and offering new ideas, the students receive special assistance from the instructor: they are told of their strong points and given suggestions as to how they might improve their weaknesses. The conference evaluations cover the area of:

attitudes
personal habits
work habits
manner of work
quality of work
knowledge of work
quantity of work

In addition to the daily evaluation, final evaluations on each student along with recommendations are left with the local school districts.

- -

The office occupations unit has only minor structural differences. This unit is 60 feet long and 12 feet wide with an interior easily converted into 3 separate instructional areas, each approximately 12 x 15 feet. Independently these three accommodate:

(a) typing, and computational theory instruction
(b) duplicating, reproducing, collating and assembly instruction
(c) key punch and data processing instruction.

The remaining space is utilized as both an instructor office and model office training unit.

In addition to the built-in and acquired instructional aids, (closed circuit TV, movie projector, screens, film and slide projectors, blackboards, bulletin boards), innumerable office machines provide abundant training opportunities for the students. Among these are: typewriters (both electric and manual), adding and calculating machines, dictation and transcription equipment, mimeograph, multilith, fluid duplicator and photo offset equipment, collating and binding equipment, and unit record equipment.

Unlike the industrial unit, the office occupations unit remains at a school site for a period of 6 weeks permitting a training period closely equivalent to a full school year of class hours. Students are enrolled in the mobile unit skills development class for 3 hours daily, 5 days per week. Regular academic work is provided in the high school. On the completion of the skills period, the students are programmed into a cooperative office education program for the remainder of the year. The cooperative experience permits them to practically apply the learned skills, gain financial remuneration and experience while employed

and extend the class hours for full course credit within the parent school situation.

In our search for comprehensiveness, however, let us turn our attention to other approaches. Still another unique training operation for the in-school youth can be cited. This program uniqueness is characterized not by program content, but by the collaborative approach it employs. In ghetto ravaged Newark, a large department store Bamberger's, is making available training facilities to prepare distributive education students. Basic education subjects are taken in the local high school while both theory and laboratory work in distributive education are presented in the store facility. In essence, the store becomes a dual classroom and lab facility. The projection is that some 90 students will be enrolled with approximately one-third of this enrollment remaining in the employ of Bamberger's and the remainder prepared for an infinite labor market. Here, question may be raised as the accessibility of the commercial facility. The same weakly based interrogations and arguments have been largely responsible for the perpetuation of the restrictive organizational patterns, the administrative heirarchy and the fragmented departmental lines. There is a need for diligent effort being exerted to foster and develop cooperation between education, business and industry. The trend toward the location of business offices and mercantile operations in suburbia or the urban outer perimeter has long since emerged.

Not to be overlooked is the stationary facility such as the county or regional vocational multi-skills center. Several models of the multi-skills center have evolved. A trioka, comprised of the State MDTA, the Vocational Division, and a local education agency, serves as the vehicle for the implementation of this program in New Jersey. The multi-skills center provides training programs is some forty plus occupational areas for out-of-school age learners and adult citizens. These centers have been operating successfully for several years and are a supplement to vocational training in the public secondary school as well as that provided at the thirteenth and fourteenth year levels in county vocational schools.

A development of recent vintage and responding to the provision of residential vocational centers endorsed by Public Law 90-576, is the New Jersey Manpower Residential Center. Formerly, one of the nation's several Job Corps Centers, the Manpower site now accommodates school-age boys from within the State of New Jersey with an intent toward equipping them socially, educationally, and vocationally for productive citizenship. Although our program designs have been punctuated with references to in-school youth; no single program descriptive has placed limitations on its usage with other audiences; those requiring compensatory training, the non-school age learner, the drop-out, or the adult needing supplementary training. With simple modifications, any of these programs could be adapted for the remaining populations with whom we are concerned. The only limitations placed upon us are those of our earlier reference - vision, creativity, resources, and separatism.

With vision, the mobile training unit could be expanded to accommodate other items of comprehensiveness in learning. We have mentioned the existence of the diagnostic and remedial training units. Could not this be used to provide that compensatory, remedial and supplementary training needed by the non-school age learner, the drop-out and the adult? Admittedly, placing our finger in the dike, is far from being the panacea for this community problem but it is one of the interests competing for its solution. It is feasibile to project that such a unit could operate both creatively and effectively to relieve the foundational imbalances extant with the rural disadvantaged?

An experimental concept identified as the Micro-Social Learning Center - an elementary social readiness program, is being developed in Vineland, New Jersey. The pilot project is designed to give disadvantaged children the skills they need to be successful in school. The Vineland center is devoted to preschool and early childhood education, but its general objectives could well be applied to an older audience. They are: (Woolman, 1969)

1. to generate the basic speech pool required for effective school performance
2. to develop a reading capability
3. to provide a situation conducive to the development of social interaction skills with peers and with adults, and
4. to develop task involvement and goal-related behaviors, i.e., improve motivation to maintain action until a goal is reached.

Yes, creativity could advance the needs of diagnostic testing and determination, remedial, compensatory, and supplementary basic and vocational education.

With resources, mobile or relocatable units can be made available within contiguous districts and regions. Operating on a multiple schedule, they could serve in-school youth during school hours; drop-outs, non-school age and adult learners in an evening program; and effect even greater productivity through a programmed summer operation.

We can envision the summer operation serving not only the learner, but also as an in-service or pre-service training facility for teachers of the disadvantaged. Herein, the resources of public education could be joined with those of higher education with remarkable and inestimable advantages. Allow your thinking to revert to the description of the office occupations mobile unit. Does not that description supercede almost any teacher-training or public school classroom we can visualize? Is it not equally important that our teachers gain the exposure to the multiple equipment and experimental methodologies that they might more effectively serve the disadvantaged?

Our several years of experience in the area of business and office occupations education recall an emphasis on the stenographic and bookkeeping curriculums. Likewise, these are the subject areas emphasized in most secondary school curriculums with the clerical skills area receiving extremely disproportionate concern or in some cases, awesome neglect. The units which we have described place concentration upon skills development within the reach of the disadvantaged.

The connotation of separatism makes no allusion to racial separatism. This is an element in which social conscience substantiated by knowledge of the social economic needs of our country should dictate our compliance. The connotation here is that we abolish the concept of uniquely independent schools - whether rural, urban or suburban. America is growing with such great rapidity that all available land space is being used for the construction of homes and this healthy cancerous phenomenon is rapidly erasing the mythical and real lines dividing urbia, suburbia and rurality. We need to put aside detrimental, impeding and even destructive thinking and move toward broader regionalization and comprehensiveness of educational resources and facilities.

Picture a mobile unit, shared by multiple districts, staffed by a master studio teacher, supplemented by on-site classroom instructors and utilizing the newest educational media - instructional television. Every classroom could be equipped with a profusion of methods, materials and consultative assistance not ordinarily available in today's classrooms.

Education U.S.A. (May 1970) carried a by-line, "Renaissance for Rural Schools" which describes a concept previously described in Educational Leadership, (October 1968). Benjamin Carmichael, Director of the Appalachia Educational Laboratory believes that a renaissance for rural education could be the outcome of an organizational structure being successfully developed in Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee. A model of the new approach which combines a group of small school districts, a college, and the State Department of Education, is being prepared by the federally supported Appalachia Educational Laboratory. Carmichael says the model will make it easy for districts to adopt the concept which is called the Educational Cooperative Program. The "Educational Cooperative Program," he contends, "will enable a small school which lacks resource to perform on a par with the most advanced districts in the country and will provide the vehicle through which a district can alter its whole approach to teaching and thereby get away from the outmoded system of one teacher, one classroom, and twenty-five students."

The cooperative is administered by a board consisting of the participating district superintendents, representatives of the participating college and State Department of Education. The latter two agencies join the cooperative in sharing funds, personnel and equipment. Instruction is taken to children by all the modern means of communication and various kinds of mobile facilities. Local school districts effect multi-district cooperation without suffering the loss of autonomy. Students remain in their local schools with their curricula being supplemented through telelecture, Electrowriter, television, radio, computers and mobile facilities. The cooperatives boast of numerous achievements: e.g., all 16 year old students in a three county Tennessee area now have access to driver education, compared to only forty percent prior to the formation of the cooperative and the cost is only two-thirds of the previous per-pupil cost; vocational educational courses are being shared in the same three-county area and vocational guidance equipment has been installed in six high schools; teachers with expertise in single subject areas are now being shared between schools as well as other benefits to gifted, pre-school and early childhood pupils.

The Educational Cooperative Program, its Director cautions, should not be confused with sharing of educational services, an old concept that has been growing rapidly in recent years. The difference is termed basic. Sharing is a limited agreement. The Educational Cooperative Program is a formal structure designed to change entire instructional procedures. The result: improved instruction, more accessibility to educational opportunities, and a far more effective system for the money.

This model structure, as well as our earlier considerations, are but probable and possible designs for improved accountability. Our professional conscience should make "accountability" a primary concern. Former U.S. Office of Education Associate Commissioner, Leon Lessinger refers to this period as the "age of accountability." It is the by-word for federal program operations and should similarly be the by-word for all education. Lessinger believes "the commitment to accountability is a powerful catalyst for reform and renewal of the school system because accountability requires fundamental changes." If the measure of our accountability is to be positive, we must recognize that simply doing "more of the same but harder" will scarcely dent the problem. New concepts of the total educational program are demanded, new policies, different arrangements of time and organization, more effective deployment of professional staff, and a reshaped curriculum. We cannot expect mass improvement to result from a small or even moderate amount of tinkering.

The accusation is correctly made and the indictment properly assigned, that education has failed the disadvantaged. There is little point in debating this truth. That time and effort would better be spent in "catching up." An Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Elementary Education Council Task Force, after having considered programs and projects for children of disadvantaged backgrounds, rendered this rather adroit and appropriate conclusion:

> "The situation is reminiscent of the Children's game of tag in which, after counting to one hundred, the child who is 'IT' calls out a warning, 'Ready or not, here I come.' The problems of the disadvantaged have come. Ready or not, the school must act!"

Integrated Career Development Curriculum for Small Rural Schools

Charles S. Winn *

The five states of the Western States Small Schools Project have expended a great deal of effort in the area of career selection. One basic premise is that more can be done than is presently being done for youth attending small isolated schools, to prepare them to be better all-round citizens in the adult setting of their choice, whether it be rural or urban.

Many new and different ideas, together with varied approaches to the concerns of educators working with such youth have been identified, developed, and tried. Some have been implemented, others have been discarded or set aside for later consideration or modification. Such efforts can be reviewed in the respective state reports of the five states, Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, and Utah, for descriptions and details of specific activities. At the same time, the progress made as a result of these efforts led to the firm resolve to make a concentrated effort to develop a specific career development curriculum for use in small schools. Thus, a formal proposal to engage in appropriate developmental and evaluative activities to accomplish this end was prepared, submitted to the U. S. Office of Education, and ultimately funded. The resultant project has been entitled "An Integrated Career Development Curriculum for Isolated Small Schools" (ICDC).

Early in this period of emphasis upon career selection education a study, which was a prime motivator for the preparation of the ICDC proposal, was conducted by James W. Altman under a grant from the Ford Foundation. The basic objective of Altman's study, which was reported in 1966, was to describe the structure of the domain of general vocational capabilities as it might exist among high school students. The strategy was to look for general capabilities in the relations between scores made by students on tests of job knowledge, where the test items were derived explicitly from the behaviors required for successful job performance. The procedure began with a preliminary selection of 76 occupations representing a wide variety of performance requirements, skill levels, and industries, and for which personnel were thought to be needed over the next 10 to 15 years. These 76 occupations then were ranked and rated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in terms of the number of openings likely to occur during the next decade. Twenty-seven of the original 76 were eliminated on this basis as having relatively few opportunities. Thirty-one occupations then were selected from the remaining 49 which were judged to offer "many" a "moderate number" of

---

* Dr. Winn is Curriculum Designer, Utah State Board of Education, Salt Lake City, Utah.

opportunities. Each of the 31 selected occupations then was analyzed and described in terms of the tasks it requires. Measurable behaviors in those tasks were selected randomly from each occupation and translated into test items. This provided a battery of some 600 items which was administered to 10,000 students in grades 9 through 14. The responses to these items provided the basic data for analysis.

The principal finding was that there is an orderly set of capabilities which are general over many common occupations for which employment opportunities are expected to exist for some time. These capabilities are at least partially independent of aptitudes as commonly measured and seem to have side applicability to occupations other than the 31 analyzed. These capabilities are organized into eight major areas: mechanical, electrical, spatial, chemical-biological, communications, numerical, human relations, and evaluation skills.

Nothing comparable to a basic job technology, such as is suggested in Altman's study, appears now to exist in the public school curriculum. Yet, such content would appear to be an appropriate core for a vocational curriculum with general occupational relevance. Placed in the curriculum following acquisition of basic intellectual tools and prior to specific vocational training, basic job technology would provide vocationally relevant skills, a bridge between traditionally academic subjects and vocational training, and also provide a basis for the student to make preliminary career choices and a choice of educational sequence.

In addition to the identification of the set of general capabilities, the principal components for an integrated career development curriculum for small schools were outlined. These might be considered as domains and were rationally derived as being society and work, occupational information, self-knowledge, career-planning, basic technology, and specific vocational. For purposes of the ICDC project some realignments or combinations of the elements were made. This resulted in the identification of three domains, basic technologies, society and the world of work, and career guidance. Because of the limitations of full program development in the project schools of the ICDC, it was decided not to include specific vocational at this time. Subsequent efforts may do so, however.

It should be noted that even though for convenience names and labels were affixed to the domains of concern as stated above, at no time should it be considered that they function in isolation nor are they separate and apart from each other.

The broad objects of the Project were the: (1) development of instructional objectives in terms of desired terminal behavior appropriate to the student in the small isolated secondary school for each part of the integrated curriculum; and (2) the determination of the concepts, skills and attitudes students need in order that they may demonstrate appropriate behaviors specified for each instructional objective. As project personnel began to wrestle with these objectives they came to the conclusion that the first really had an erroneous

assumption built into it and therefore ought to be modified to read, "The development of instructional objectives in terms of desired criterion behavior to be obtained appropriate to the student in the small isolated secondary school for each part of the integrated curriculum."

The tasks of determining objectives were classified into the three categories or domains: basic technologies, career selection and guidance, and society and the world of work. Three teams of writers prepared performance objectives dealing with their respective assignments. Following the review of the original drafts of these objectives by the Quality Assurance Panel, the draft statements were revised in keeping with the suggestions made by the panel.

Following the development of the behavioral objectives a single concept learning unit approach was developed to be used as the student learning vehicle. The instructions for the learning units are as follows:

The ICDC learning unit is designed to provide for the student knowledge which will help him learn at his own rate and on an individual basis. The student will be able to reach measurable performances at rates unique to his needs as he is involved with in-life experiences.

If the student is engaged in an in-life experience and if he is stimulated to learn about the use of a tool, a product, or a concept, he will select the learning unit designed to meet this stimulus. He will take the Pre-test based upon the knowledge in the learning unit. If the Pre-test indicates that he needs additional knowledge and practice on certain behavioral objectives, he will select from the suggested learning materials and activities those sections which help to fulfill his specific needs.

As he proceeds through the learning unit, self tests will give him immediate feedback on his progress. If the student completes all of the behavior objectives and believes he is ready for the post test, his teacher will present the test and evaluate his progress. Upon successful completion of the post test the student will return to his in-life experiences .

During the entire learning unit the teacher will help to facilitate student-teacher and student-student interaction. The teacher will observe student progress and when necessary direct the student toward alternate learning materials.

The learning unit will provide an individualized program for both the teacher and the student. It will provide the student with immediate knowledge, response, and help as he requires such for in in-life experience. The effectiveness of student learning can be greatly improved through teacher and student coordination of in-life experiences with individual learning units at the time the student is stimulated to learn. The following is an introduction to the criteria for a learning unit.

Briefly, these are the specifications for a learning unit:

1. Purpose or objective of the units is clearly stated to the student in terms of the behavior or competency he must demonstrate, a product he must produce or an event in which he will participate. It will state how he can demonstrate what he has learned.

2. The student will be given real sensory experiences with real life objects, events, or processes that make up the concept being developed.

3. Testing exercises will be placed at important, logical or sequential points within the unit.

4. Provision will be made for the student to practice new learnings in one or two prototype real-life situations or simulated situations.

5. Suggestions will be made for inquiry and quest and additional references listed. Resources, especially categories of human resources, will be listed.

6. Sample criterion items for development of pre- and post-tests will be given. These will be cued to the objectives of the unit and will take into account the depth of interest and differences in ability of students.

7. Prerequisite behaviors, if any, will be identified.

8. The unit will contain a list of technical terms and concepts in order of their introduction.

9. Equipment needed will be listed.

10. A normal time framewill be included.

11. Vocabulary will be at the seventh grade level--units will be used in grades 9 through 12.

The learning units will be tested and evaluated by the fourteen project schools in the five states. After the field test, the units will be available for use by all schools.

Trends and Significant Differences in Vocational Education Programs for Indian Americans

John H. Peterson, Jr. *

I know of few fields of education in which critical facts are so often lacking or where contradictory opinions more often abound than in Indian education. But at the same time, there are few fields in which report after report and investigation after investigation has addressed itself to the same problem. In his recent statement on Federal Indian policy, President Nixon succinctly stated that Indian Americans "are the most deprived and most isolated minority group in our nation. On virtually every scale of measurement... the Indian people rank at the bottom."(1) I will not take time to quote the dismal statistics on the condition of Indian Americans except on two points of particular interest and concern for vocational educators; 1) Unemployment - In 1967 over 37 percent of Indidan men on reservations were unemployed. This unemployment rate is 50 percent higher than that for the United States as a whole during the worst of the Great Depression(2). 2) Education - The dropout rate for Indian students is presently two times the national average and the average educational level of Indians under Federal supervision is less than six school years(1). Clearly, there is a great need for expanded vocational training for Indian Americans. The recent Senate report on Indian education entitled A National Tragedy(3) makes clear that this applied equally to Indian vocational education.

The past failure in Indian general and vocational education stems from a multitude of factors. I think we can examine the major factors best by looking at three questions or controversies which affect the curriculum, goals and direction of Indian vocational education programs. These questions are: 1) To what extent are Indians different from other disadvantaged rural groups, and to what extent do such possible differences affect program planning? 2) To what extent should vocational education and training prepare for and encourage relocation from rural areas, and to what extent should training be tied to and facilitate local community development? 3) Who should fund, direct, and control Indian vocational programs? I will not attempt to provide final answers to these three questions, if indeed there are any final answers to them. Rather, I feel that an understanding of the issues and alternatives involved in these questions is essential for adequate planning and execution of vocational education programs for Indian Americans.

ARE INDIANS DIFFERENT?

It is certainly true, as Barbara Kemp of the U. S. Office of Education pointed out, that "There is a commonality of problems to all low income/low education peoples living in isolation(4). But beyond this commonality, are Indian Americans sufficiently different to require

---

* Dr. Peterson is Assistant Anthropologist, Social Science Research Center, Mississippi State University, State College, Mississippi.

special approaches in vocational education?

As you know, this series of multiple institutes is based on the assumption that there are some special problems peculiar to the rural disadvantaged that must be taken into account if possibilities for program success in vocational education are to be maximized. If this assumption is correct, it follows that if there are significant differences among rural disadvantaged populations, these must also be taken into consideration in planning vocational programs.

Some reports seem to conclude that no such significant differences exist. They would hold that the divergence of the Indian population from the general population in terms of employment, education, and health simply reflects the extreme poverty of Indian communities. Harold Miller reflects this view when he states, "The thread that ties all the Indian cultures together may well be the 'culture of poverty'."(5) If Dr. Miller is correct, then one could conclude that programs applicable to other poverty groups would probably be equally applicable to Indian Americans. The disadvantaged background of the Indian trainee would certainly be considered in the curriculum. For example, given the low educational level, basic education in addition to specific job skills would be essential for many trainees. Additional specific skills for modern living, such as driver training for the man, or even modern homemaking skills for the wife would be needed in many instances. But the curriculum need not make any special recognition of the fact that the trainee is an Indian American.

The opposite position is taken by both some authorities on Indian education and by some Indian leaders themselves. Two recent books by educators with long experience in Indian education strongly argue the need for educators working with Indian American children to recognize cultural differences often ignored by non-Indians (5,6,7). The Report of the First All-Indian Statewide Conference on California Indian Education indicated that many Indians feel that teachers of Indians need special training, including first-hand orientation to the particular Indian group with which the teacher is to work(8).

The pervasiveness of this controversy over the extent to which Indian Americans are different from other Americans was well demonstrated at a recent conference on Indian vocational education convened by ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. At the conference, a committee made up of representatives of local educational agencies concluded that no special recommendations need be made because the characteristics of Indian Americans are found in other disadvantaged groups as well as in the general population(9). The Indian committee at the same conference stressed, among other things, the need to sensitize teachers to Indian culture(10).

I would like to suggest that this is not an either/or question. Rather, the need for recognition of Indian background and corresponding adjustment of vocational education programs probably depends on both the age and the background of the trainee. Indian groups vary widely in the degree to which traditional practices are followed and the degree to which traditional languages are spoken. Sharp differences are sometimes found even between

different communities in the same Indian group. Those of you who went on the field trip to the Choctaw reservation last Saturday saw for yourselves the dramatic difference between the more traditional Bogue Chitto community and the more modern Pearl River community, only twenty miles away. In Bogue Chitto, 45 percent of all households still follow the traditional occupation of farming, while in Pearl River, only 14 percent of all households are engaged in farming(11). Likewise, in Bogue Chitto 92 percent of all households speak primarily Choctaw at home, while in Pearl River only 60 percent of all households continue to speak primarily Choctaw at home(11).

The need for special attention being given to the general background of the trainee would seem to be more important for the success of a program in Bogue Chitto than Pearl River. Likewise, vocational programs in certain Indian communities may be able to disregard the particular background of the trainees, while in other communities, this may not be possible if the program is to succeed at the desired level.

Just as specialized programs may be more important for some Indian communities than for others, it seems quite clear that specialized programs are more important for certain age groups than for others. Recommendations for specialized curriculums for Indian students seem most often to apply to early elementary students than for older students(6,7). For younger Indian students, the need for specialized curriculums has been strongly argued by a psychologist with long experience in Indian education, John Bryde. In his study of scholastic failure and personality conflict among Indian students, Bryde found that as Indian youth reach adolescence, they experience an increasing degree of conflict as to their place in modern society, and that this conflict is related to scholastic failure(12). Bryde recommends a program that would take special cognizance of Indian culture and history, and thereby help Indian students reconcile the conflicts they face and form positive self-concepts necessary for both academic and vocational success.

Bryde does not mention vocational education, but it seems to me that a strong program in pre-vocational training and vocational training can make an equal contribution to the problem he describes. In fact, the identity conflict he describes might stem at least in part from what might be called the romantic stereotype about Indians. This stereotype equates being Indian with being traditional--successful Indians seem somehow to be less Indian. This problem is intensified by the fact that most Indian students live in areas with a heavy unemployment rate and a corresponding shortage of successful Indian adults upon whom the Indian youth can model their aspirations. A specific example may illustrate what I mean.

Prior to 1969 there were no Choctaw policemen in Mississippi, and Choctaw children did not express any interest in becoming policemen. The creation of a Choctaw Police Force has resulted in widespread interest in the occupation of policeman, even to the extent of Choctaw children making picture books in school about Indian policemen. Actually, this problem is not limited to Indian youth. Surveys of Choctaw farmers in Mississippi showed that most Choctaw farmers in Mississippi recognized the limitations of their occupation(13), but had little or no knowledge

of alternatives, or how to prepare themselves for these alternatives(11).

Thus it seems possible that the conflict Bryde describes may result not from just traditional Indian values, but also from the inability of Indians to see possibilities for vocational success as Indians. This would suggest that both a specialized Indian curriculum and a regular pre-vocational and vocational programs could contribute to the vocational and academic success of Indian students. In fact, the two might well be combined into a single program as was tried by Henry Burger in an experimental pre-vocational program for Navajo youth(14). The program involved study of traditional Navajo building principles and then relating these to the current building trades. Burger thus used ethnic history to teach ethnic economic opportunity. Imaginative vocational educators should be able to construct even better combinations of specialized Indian materials with standard vocational education materials.

Harold Miller suggests that it may even be possible to increase academic and vocational success of Indian students without creating any vocational program for them at all. In a study of Indian students in North Dakota, Miller found that the best predictor of academic achievement and vocational maturity of Indian students was the occupation of the father and the education of the father and mother. This relationship was so strong and positive that he concluded funds presently being spent on remedial programs for Indian pupils might well be redirected toward adult education(3). In other words, programs designed to raise the educational and occupational level of Indian adults might be more directly beneficial to the Indian student than programs aimed directly at the Indian student.

Regardless of whether one wishes to emphasize the need for specialized curriculum or regular curriculum, there is no question of the need for expanded pre-vocational and vocational educational programs for Indians of all ages, in all Indian communities. This leads to the second question that must be considered in planning vocational programs for Indian Americans.

TRAINING FOR RELOCATION OR LOCAL DEVELOPMENT

All vocational programs, whether for youth or adults, ultimately have the goal of job placement. But are individuals being trained for jobs in the local area, or for jobs in another area, possibly an urban environment? Since there is a high degree of unemployment and a surplus of labor in most Indian communities, it seems logical that job training must often be associated with the need for Indians to go to other areas to work. The Bureau of Indian Affairs has estimated that even with full practical utilization, reservation lands would provide a livelihood for less than half the population now residing on them(5). Miller bluntly states, "Nearly every Indian pupil faces a fact of life that when he has completed his education, economic and vocational success will be most readily achieved if he leaves the reservation."(5)

However, if relocation to urban areas is accepted as the goal of vocational education programs, then the programs must take into account the divergence of the present community of residence from the future community of work. Let me again mention the Bogue Chitto community, an hour's drive south, as an example. In this community 90 percent of all families are composed of a husband and wife born in the community and only 2 percent of all families are composed of both a husband and wife born in another Choctaw community. Thus Bogue Chitto is more than just a rural neighborhood. In many respects it is an extended kinship group with all families being related to most other families through kinship and marriage. Relocation for someone from this community involves the cutting of close family ties and taking up residence for the first time in a community of strangers with whom there is little common background and no common native language. Thus the degree of adjustment required to relocate from Bogue Chitto to an urban area would be far greater than that required of most rural residents.

Yet increasing numbers of Indian Americans are attempting to make this adjustment, moving to urban areas. For in spite of their attachment to their home communities, they prefer to seek the better employment opportunities in urban areas. Over 100,000 Indian Americans left reservations between 1952 and 1968 through voluntary participation in relocation programs operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs(2). This does not indicate the total urban migration. James Officer has estimated that for every three Indians participating in the formal relocation programs, two additional Indians leave to join urban friends and relatives on their own(15). In recent years vocational education programs have been offered to almost half of all relocatees because of the high rate of return by untrained Indians. Even with such training, return rates remain high, although the exact rate is subject to much controversy. Senate study of Indian education estimates an ultimate return rate as high as 75 percent(3). Joan Ablon has estimated the ultimate return rate may be around 50 percent(16).

Obviously there is a need for more longitudinal information on vocational training and relocation, but certain facts are clear. 1) There is a need for expanded vocational training if relocation is to be a success. 2) This training must include not just vocational skills and basic education programs, but also programs to prepare people for urban life. 3) Training and relocation by family units seem best. 4) There is a need for expanded services to Indians after relocation. President Nixon's recent message on Indian Affairs has promised expanding Federal funding to Indian centers in major cities in order to meet this last need!

It must be pointed out also that the rate of return does not indicate a total failure of the vocational training and relocation program. Sorkin points out that returnees to the reservation, while earning less than they had earned in the city, earned more than they would have had they not left the reservation(2). Thus, training and job experience in the city increased occupational chances upon returning home. In fact it seems that many Indians do not go to the city with the idea of remaining there, but eventually plan to return, and often only delay returning until they

are fairly sure they will be able to secure employment at home.

As a result of the relatively small size of the training and relocation program, as well as the return rate, Sorkin found that the total impact of relocation on reservation unemployment was small(2). In fact, net out-migration is not as large as the growth of reservation population resulting in a continuing increase of reservation population. Sorkin concluded that the need for relocation will continue to grow unless industrialization occurs on reservations at a far more rapid rate. Mr. Gibson will speak more directly on this point.

WHO SHOULD DIRECT, CONTROL, AND FUND INDIAN VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS?

In addition to the question of the degree of modification needed in vocational education programs to meet the particular needs of Indian Americans and the question of training for relocation or local development, there is a third problem in Indian vocational education, the problem of who should fund, direct, and control Indian vocational programs.

For most of the history of this country, responsibility for all Indian programs was assumed by the Federal Government in exchange for ownership of Indian lands (1,15). These special obligations applied only to Indians living on or adjacent to reservation lands. The urban migration of Indians has resulted in increasing numbers of Indians not being qualified for special Federal Indian programs, and at the same time, since World War II, Federal Indian policy has been one of terminating the special obligation of the Government toward Indians and increasing involvement by state and local governments in Indian programs.

Unfortunately, confusion as to the status of Indian Americans has frequently resulted in their failure to receive the needed support from state governements. Also Federal funding has all too often been too low to provide adequate services through either state or Federal agencies. In other cases, legislative restrictions have unnecessarily limited the use of vital funds by Indians. A case in point is the use of vocational education funds. Since the Vocational Education Act does not permit the matching of Federal money with other Federal money, the Bureau of Indian Affairs cannot directly make use of matching funds available(4). Thus, schools where vocational education money is vitally needed are denied this money. Apparently Bureau of Indian Affairs schools must wait for special appropriations for vocational education, or for special enabling legislation such as has been passed for the Appalachian area. This case is a perfect example of how Indians fail to receive needed services and funds through oversight and neglect.

Earlier this month President Nixon announced a new direction in Federal Indian programs which may correct many of the past problems in Indian education(1). The President's program re-emphasizes the special obligation of the Federal Government to Indian Americans, requests from Congress a higher level of funding for Indian programs, and also requests legislation which will enable individual Indian groups to take complete responsibility for the direction of their own programs.

I strongly urge you to read this statement in its entirety, since most of Nixon's arguments for local Indian control can be applied equally to the need for greater Indian involvement in and direction of Indian vocational education. President Nixon indicates that the time has come to create conditions whereby the Indian future is determined by Indian acts and Indian decisions. He states that in this way, programs will recognize and build upon the capacities and insights of the Indian people themselves and better meet the local needs through more flexible programing. I feel that some of the questions about Indian vocational education that I raised earlier cannot be answered at a national or even a state level because of the different needs and resources of individual Indian communities. For this reason, increased local involvement by Indian communities in program planning and direction would enable Indian Americans to answer these questions for themselves at the local level in accordance with local needs.

REFERENCES

1. Richard M. Nixon, "White House Message on Indian Affairs to the Congress of the United States." Office of the White House Press Secretary, July 8, 1970.

2. Alan L. Sorkin, "Some Aspects of American Indian Migration," Social Forces, Vol. 48 (December 1969), pp. 243-250.

3. Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, 91st Congress, 1st Session, Indian Education: A National Tragedy--A National Challenge. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

4. Barbara Kemp, "Vocational Amendments for 1968 and Their Relevance for Indians," in Development of Vo-Ed Programs for American Indians, Everett D. Edington and Phillip Hocker, eds. ERIC-CRESS, New Mexico State University, 1969. pp. 13-14.

5. Harold J. Miller, The Effects of Integration on Rural Indian Pupils. Center for Research in Vo-Tech Education, Report 13, University of North Dakota, 1968.

6. Miles V. Zintz, Education Across Cultures (2nd Ed), Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Co., 1969.

7. Robert A. Roesell, Jr., Handbook for Indian Education. Los Angeles: Amerindian Publishing Co. n.d.

8. California Indian Education: Report of the First All-Indian State-Wide Conference on California Indian Education. Modesto, California: California Indian Association, Inc. 1968.

9. "Local Education Agencies Committee Report," Development of Vo-Ed Programs for American Indians, Everett D. Edington and Phillip Hocker, eds. ERIC-CRESS, New Mexico State University, 1969. pp. 40-41.

10. "Indian Committee Report," Development of Vo-Ed Programs for American Indians, Everett D. Edington and Phillip Hocker, Eds., ERIC-CRESS, New Mexico State University, 1969. pp. 34-36.

11. John H. Peterson, Jr.,The Socio-Economic Condition of the Mississippi Choctaw Indians, Research Coordinating Unit for Vo-Tech Education, Education Report 9. Mississippi State University: Social Science Research Center, 1970.

12. John F. Bryde, The Sioux Indian Student: A Study of Scholastic Failure and Personality Conflict. Pine Ridge, South Dakota: Holy Rosary Mission, 1966.

13. Wilfrid C. Bailey, "Factors Associated with Changes in Land Operations of Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians," MSS, Social Science Research Institute, University of Georgia, 1963.

14. Henry G. Burger, "'Ethno-Janus': Employment-Foreseeing Cultural Heritage Lessions for Navajo Pupils," abstract published in Bulletins of the American Anthropological Association, Vol. 2, 3, (1969), p. 16.

15. James Officer, "The Indian and Federal Policy," paper read at at the annual meeting of the Society for Applied Anthropology, Boulder, Colorado, 1970.

16. Joan Ablon, "American Indian Relocation, Problems of Dependency and Management in the City," Phylon, Vol. 26 (Winter 1965) pp. 362-368.

17. John G. Peck, "Lumbee Indian Study: Baltimore Group," MSS, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, North Carolina State University, 1970.

Vocational Education and Indian Americans

A Panel Discussion

In order to place Indian vocational education programs in a specific community context, following Dr. Peterson's presentation, three Choctaw Indian officials described various vocational education programs and needs in the Choctaw communities of Mississippi. The speakers and topics were:

1. Mr. Robert Benn[1]- "Vocational Training and Community Development Projects." Mr. Benn described the merging of a self-help housing program with a construction training program which permitted the completion of 45 new houses in record time through the use of construction trainees. At the same time, the building program provided an ideal training site, with the trainees themselves accomplishing all finish work on the final block of 15 houses, all of which passed government inspection with no deficiencies to be corrected. Mr. Benn briefly mentioned other projects carried out on the Choctaw reservation uniting community development projects and vocational training, such as heavy equipment operators' school, which performed the initial land-clearing operations for construction of a new community facilities building. Mr. Benn emphasized that through coordination of this type, not only do Indian trainees receive much needed realistic training, but that in the process the entire community benefits.

2. Mr. Jimmy Gibson[2]- "Vocational Training and Economic Development." Mr. Gibson described the past employment problem of the Choctaws, and the fact that lack of local employment in capacities other than tenant farmers or day laborers had forced the out-migration of the better educated, more highly skilled Choctaws. Mr. Gibson emphasized the need for further industrial development in the area, and for providing job training in connection with local industries. This would not only raise the level of living on the reservation, but industrial employment would help stem the forced out-migration resulting from the lack of local opportunity. This would in turn result in children in the Choctaw communities being exposed to people of varying occupations, giving them examples of successful Indians to follow. Mr. Gibson reported on current attempts to attract industry, and admitted that the task was hard, requiring the cooperation of economic development personnel, educators, and tribal leaders. However, if these efforts proved successful, it would give a tremendous boost to tribal morale, and in the people's confidence in their ability to do things for themselves.

3. Mr. Frank Henry[3]- "Para-Professional, Professional and Management Training Needs in Indian Communities." Mr. Henry emphasized the pressing need for para-professional, professional, and management training for Indian communities. He cited the fields of health, education, and management of tribal enterprises as the areas where this need is greatest. Like Mr. Gibson, Mr. Henry stressed the impact on Choctaw children of seeing Choctaw or other Indian adults

working as nurses, teachers, and administrators. Mr. Henry also emphasized that programs could be more efficiently handled through training Indians, since they would have a permanent commitment to their communities. For example, presently public health doctors serve two-year tours of duty, and then leave the reservation to be replaced by a new inexperienced doctor, who likewise does not understand the language of the people. Mr. Henry also called attention to large numbers of older Indians who have performed sub-professional jobs for years, and who could move to performance on a higher level if given suitable training. Mr. Henry felt that the training needs in these higher occupation levels were at least as important as the need for lower level training, and that training individuals for jobs at this level would enable the Indian people to make a greater contribution to the solution to their own problems.

Following the above presentations questions were directed to the panel and the remainder of the session was spent in discussion of the heeds and problems of Indian vocational education.

---

[1] Mr. Benn is a former naval officer and a former Chairman of the Choctaw Tribal Council. In his capacity as Housing Officer for the Choctaw Agency, he was primarily responsible for the development of the programs he described. He is presently the highest placed Mississippi Choctaw in the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

[2] Mr. Gibson holds a Master's Degree in Guidance and worked for several years as a high school counselor before accepting his present position as reservation planner with the East Central Economic Development Council which coordinates economic development in the seven-county area surrounding Choctaw reservations. In accepting this position, Mr. Gibson became the first Mississippi Choctaw to hold a professional level position in either state or local government programs in Mississippi.

[3] Mr. Henry is especially qualified to speak on professional training, particularly for older Indians. Leaving the Choctaw communities as a young man, he later returned and for the past two years, he and his wife have been involved in a special work-study program designed to increase the number of qualified Indian teachers. Additionally, Mr. Henry is currently serving as Vice Chairman of the Mississippi Choctaw Tribal Council.

EVALUATION OF VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR AMERICAN INDIANS

Anthony F. Purley *

American Indian education in the United States has become a vital social enterprise. Today it embraces formal education at the pre-school, primary, secondary, and higher education levels. Included as an important cornerstone within the total educational framework are vocational and continuing education.

Changing vocational technology is placing even greater demands on Indian people, along with offering them new opportunities. In its demands, technology is bringing about changes to the personal and social life, as well as the occupational life of American Indians. It has increased the number of possibilities for personal enjoyment. Cultural and recreational activities presently require better vocational and general educational levels in order for individuals to participate on a satisfying level.

While total accurate statistics for measurement of the scope of vocational education programs and needs for Indian people are not available, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, through the Division of Employment Assistance has served approximately 60,000 Indian people through Adult Vocational Training programs and through Direct Employment Services.

Other information is available through other Bureau of Indian Affairs divisions. The Branch of Education, through such schools as Haskell Institute, the Institute of American Indian Arts in Santa Fe, New Mexico, the Indian School in Brigham City, Utah, and other educational facilities is also involved in entry level vocational training for Indians.

Private Industry has become involved in vocational training of "hard-core" Indian people. The Bureau of Indian Affairs, through the Division of Employment Assistance, has contracted to such corporations as Thiokol Chemical Corporation, Philco-Ford, Bendix, and RCA, to develop unique resident vocational training programs.

Indian organizations, whether tribal or a combination of tribes, are also rapidly becoming involved in vocational education and orientation to jobs for Indian people. Funding for Indian involvement comes from the Bureau of Indian Affairs, private corporations, private foundations, and tribal sources. Some of these Indian organizations are: The United Tribes of North Dakota, The Zuni Indian Pueblo of New Mexico, The All Indian Pueblo Council of New Mexico, The Urban Indian Development Association of California, and the Inter-tribal Council of California.

While concern for vocational training for Indian people is increasing,

---

* Anthony F. Purley is Assistant Director, Roswell Employment Training Center, Roswell, New Mexico.

Indian unemployment still ranges between 40 and 75 per cent in comparison with about 4 per cent for the nation as a whole. Vocational education is no longer adequate in its teaching of fixed habits and established facts. The emphasis for Indian people now must be on the ability to meet new situations, on how, not what, to learn. Technological changes are occurring so rapidly, Indian people must be trained so that they can adapt themselves to new methods of doing things; new ideas. Vocational education for Indians has not focused on this aspect of training. To failure oriented Indian people, learning is only meaningful if they desire to do in jobs outside of school.

The nature and scope of vocational education for Indian people is complex and increasing in its vastness. A more critical examination of present programs is a must.

Current research on evaluation, methods and techniques, and the status of the various vocational education programs are meager if not non-existent. Agencies concerned with research in all aspects of Indian education have been unable to secure any studies that are currently relevant to the evaluation of vocational programs for Indian people.

The Educational Resources Information Center Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, lists about three studies that might facilitate current efforts. They are: "Project Awareness, University-American Indian Educational Enrichment and Vocational Motivation Program. Annual Report, "Paskewitz, Daniel and Stark, Matthew, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, 1967, 47 p. "Doorway Toward the Light, The Story of the Special Navajo Education Program," Coombs, L. Madison, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington, D.C., 1962, 174 p., and "An Evaluation of Institutional Vocational Training Received By American Indians Through the Muskogee, Oklahoma Area Office of the Bureau of Indian Affairs," Blume, Paul R., Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, 1960, 261 p.

Without detailing traditional assumptions and historical shortcomings that are still prevalent, the Blume study at Oklahoma State appears to be one of the better efforts toward evaluation of Indian vocational programs. Criteria of the evaluation by Mr. Blume included employment experience, income, labor force attachment, and benefit cost ratio. An overview of the study will suffice, however, it is representative of other studies, reports, observations, and assumptions that this writer examined and heard, with the possible exception of the benefit cost ratio.

Trainee characteristics brought our by the study were: (1) The average trainee was better educated than the average Indian, (2) The employment and income levels were low by most standards, (3) There was a high noncompletion rate among the trainees, and (4) The questionnaire response rate was partially affected by the cultural and historical background of the trainees. Conclusions were: (1) Training completion results in average increase in income of $1,929, (2) The average increase in employment was about three and one half months of additional employment, and (3) The social benefit cost ratio was found to be 2.39.

The above study pin-pointed two specific needs. One, of course, is the pressing need for more relevant studies in vocational education.

The other is a much needed re-direction of research away from the evaluations of skills and numbers only in vocational programs.

Some traditional concepts were also implied that are grossly inadequate today. The old concept of vocational education for Indians as exclusively "shop" education was implied. Furthermore, the belief that vocational education is only for the less able, therefore Indians can do better in vocational education was another implication. Traditional approaches are valid because "cultural conflict" is a major consideration where Indians are involved in vocational or other education. These concepts must be dispelled as it concerns Indian people because it has established a reputation of inflexibility in evaluation procedures of vocational progress.

To provide a more favorable climate for more valid research in evaluation several things must occur. One, the highest priorities in vocational education must be given to the employability of Indian young people, including both initial and continuing employability. These priorities must come about without being limited by traditional concepts and learning theories as it concerns Indian people. This is especially pertinent as the present job structure requirements in specific jobs are spiraling and that the Indian population has the greatest bulge of employable youth in proportion to the total Indian population.

Another is the misconception that academic education and vocational education present an either - or choice to the Indian needs more attention. The unfortunate stigma that is attached to Indian people in relationship to vocational education must be removed. Vocational education for Indians does not eliminate all other forms of general or liberal education.

The third thing that must occur is the realization that the lack of a solid foundation in the basic communicative and computative skills is the greatest deterrent to Indian employability. In addition, we must inform students that elements of vocational skills are included in any professional education.

The fourth needed action is to remove the inflexibility forced on Indian vocational programs. Since most vocational education for Indian people is funded by some federal agency, many of the programs are inflexible because everything is prescribed by law. Less rigid definition of allocations is needed to extend vocational education of every kind so Indian people will have opportunities everywhere for work.

In light of the conditions and limitations described above, future studies must put emphasis toward innovation in pure research and more actual experimentation in vocational education.

Some efforts toward these innovations have already begun. The Division of Employment Assistance in the Bureau of Indian Affairs has taken the lead. In its effort to improve and evaluate present vocational programs for Indian people, this division has involved private corporations to assist it in experimentation and innovation of vocational education in its demonstration projects contracted to private Industry. It has asked Thiokol Chemical Corporation to come up with new ways of evaluation of present vocational programs. In response to this request, Thiokol

Chemical Corporation established the Roswell Employment Training Center, which has a perpetual Indian student body of 350 Indians broken up into 100 Indian families, including children, and 150 single male and female Indian students, and a Police Academy with a 40 man cadet corps. Experiments and demonstrations in innovative teaching techniques, counseling, curriculum and job preparation are part of the Roswell Employment Training Center program.

In response to the request of the Division of Employment Assistance for a clearer definition of goals and an overhaul of the educational process, in terms of more adequate measuring procedures and well defined objectives, Thiokol Chemical Corporation is developing the following methodologies for use in Indian vocational programs: (1) The first method employed to facilitate evaluation was the "systems" approach to training. This approach to training includes the careful integration of several sub-systems and components. In essence, the integration and interaction of vital components results from a systems design that insures the most efficient and effective learning for the individual student through individually prescribed programs leading to the achievement of behavioral goals. Steps for implementation include stating the output specifications in terms of behavioral objectives, synthesizing the objective among the various disciplines, developing appropriate materials and measurement instruments, and selecting media. A task analysis is a vital part of the "systems approach." The task analysis as applied here facilitates appropriate feedback. Feedback, in this case, is information concerning the adequacy of the training program in meeting the needs of the trainees and the employers. The system in operation also focuses on the incoming trainee as an individual having specific and unique strengths and weaknesses. It determines the abilities and skills the trainee already possesses, as well as those that need to be developed. Assessment is continuous and it starts the individual into the development process where he should start and not where others should start. It allows the student to move at his own rate and compares his progress with this own development from one period to the next. The "systems approach" provides a framework for collecting information needed to: (a) design training programs that meet the needs of the students and the requirements of the employers, (b) operate training programs efficiently, (c) adapt instruction to the changing requirements, (d) provide a constant check and evaluation of training based upon realistic job and life-related criteria, (e) develop better methods of attaining vocational training objectives.

(2) The second method and of more recent design, is the cost benefit analysis for evaluation. In determining costs in vocational education many basic factors have never been quantified. There has been no clear guide for measuring vocational school outputs. The cost benefit system basically includes information collection, analysis, and experimentation as ways of efficiently expending money. In essence it is perpetual program accounting. This system, while still in the experimental stage, assists expenditure decisions away from the incremental type and allows for analysis of the cost of input, developmental process, output, and the prognosis of output success with data needed to analyze and assess alternative patterns of resource allocation. It assists in determining the cost of an individual's training and what his contribution back into the economy will be over a set number of years in the future. The system

itself evaluates and facilitates forecasting, programming, and budgeting.

(3) Evaluation is constant by another method of measuring technological learning effectiveness by vocational clusters rather than by one specific vocational skill. Skill training includes various areas of a given vocation. As an example, Auto Mechanics trainees are exposed to small two cycle engines, tune-up, auto welding, body and fender, painting, in addition to the main course of instruction. Every effort is made to develop a flexible worker and his course content in addition to his specific vocational course includes verbal and written communication, human relations, computation, reading, reading comprehension, and an analysis and solution of problems. The student is evaluated in relationship to course content and inculcated with better working habits, pride, and the desire to continue his development beyond his terminal status. Periodic evaluation by personal interviews, observations, team meetings of teachers, verbal and written tests, and job performance is a vital part of the program.

(4) The use of consultants is another method of evaluation of the training program. Industrial involvement is a vital part of this evaluation procedure. Businessmen or workers representing the various vocational clusters act as a committee of consultants and periodically evaluate the vocational program. In addition, Indian people representing Indian tribes from various sections of the United States are also set up in a committee of consultants for evaluation of the program. A local committee of citizens representing educators, businessmen, agencies, and civic organizations are also part of the consultant group that assists in evaluation of program content.

(5) One final method of evaluation is periodic self-evaluation of staff and administrators regarding the program content, staff effectiveness, and staff attitudes. This method also includes student participation in evaluation of program content and staff effectiveness. Student peer groups evaluation of one another through group encounters is a valuable part of this method.

In view of some of my observations and experiences concerning the evaluation of vocational programs for Indian people, many recommendations come to mind. However, I realize not all recommendations are researchable at this time. I would recommend priorities be given to the following for research or demonstration:

(1) Research to develop a more accurate and adequate picture of the status of vocational education for Indians.

(2) Research in vocational education standards for teachers. So little is known about the training and sources of recruitment of teachers.

(3) More studies to explore the values, attitudes and motivation necessary beyond basic job skills. Studies should not be necessarily cultural in nature, and should include teachers, employers, and students.

(4) More demonstration projects in education resource development and training focusing on vocational education curriuclum, school organization, and the role of the communities.

(5) More research and demonstration projects in human resource development for Indian people in terms of better preparation for affecting the goals and decisions they face.

In summary, future possibilities for the development of evaluation procedures for vocational training is to circumvent the structured school system in order to give Indian people concrete experience that is related to jobs. To discourage the tide of dropouts, we should explore the possibilities that are available for the constructive use of human talents in the interest of the community and the Indian work force. We need to consider what skills are durable and what skills are transferable. Emphasis in training and evaluation should now be on self-understanding and on an individual's ability to interact well with both his peers and his seniors, as these are highly desired as occupational skills.

Every effort must be made to encourage agencies such as the Division of Employment Assistance, who is leading the way in vocational education for Indians, to become more involved in depth with Indian people. Private Industry has proven it can perform because it is less structured and because it is not limited by conservative educational tradition.

Private research laboratories must come out more aggressively than in the past. They must become more action oriented and participate actively in improvement of education with more emphasis toward vocational education.

Last, but not least, Indian people must be given the opportunity to become deeply involved in all aspects of education. Consultant services must be made available by federal, state, and local agencies, research laboratories, and private industry.

POSSIBLE CHANGES OF ATTITUDES OF DISADVANTAGED WORKERS DUE TO POSITIVE JOB EXPERIENCE

Joe M. Blackbourn*

From the standpoint of an educationist, it has become increasingly clear that with our traditional approach to education, we are failing to serve well the vast majority of our students in the public schools. Vocational education seems to be moving toward a stance that can certainly increase our effectiveness in reaching all of the students rather than serving only those who are preparing to enter a traditional four year college program. This is not to suggest that vocational educators have all of the answers to this problem. In fact this is not a simple problem, but an extremely complicated one with many facets which defy solution.

One of these facets (probably the most important as I see it) is the problem of formalism. Cooley describes formalism as the point at which means toward ends become ends within themselves. It doesn't take a lot of imagination to apply this to the situation that currently exists in the schools today. There is a strong tendency to continue doing things in a certain way simply because we have always done them this way. In fact, many functionaries in the schools have developed vested interests in continuing to do things in the traditional manner. In all too many instances this formalism has helped to spell out failure for many of the students in the public schools. These failures play an extremely important part in the overall problem of the disadvantaged worker.

I find that my topic for today is extremely difficult because of the highly intangible nature of attitudes. There are a number of tangibles connected with positive job experience. These tangibles lend themselves to measurement while the intangibles seem to defy quantification. Some of the tangibles deal with consumption behavior, removal of disadvantaged people from welfare roles, increased taxes from people who were formerly welfare recipients, better general life style of the disadvantaged worker all of which lend themselves to measurement.

On the other hand, some attitudes are less amenable to measurement. Crites (1969) has summarized the research about some of the attitudes related to jobs. He indicated that the early research in the area of job satisfaction dealt mainly with attitudes about the job. (Hoppock 1930, 1935) Kates (1950) and Schaffer, (1953). This particular research led to a series of investigations (Blai, 1964; Froehlick and Wolins, 1960; Kuhlen 1963; and Ross and Zander, 1957).

Some research centering around man's needs has been reported. Herzberg (1959) held that man has two sets of needs; his need as an animal to avoid pain and his need as a human to grow psychologically. From this framework, he arrived two sets of factors - dissatisfier factors called hygiene or maintenance factors and satisfier factors called motivators.

---

* Dr. Joe M. Blackbourn is Assistant Professor of Guidance Education, College of Education, Mississippi State University, State College, Miss.

In summary, the findings in this study indicated that two separate and distinct factors are involved in job satisfaction and in job dissatisfaction and that business must be constantly concerned with improving the hygiene factors in order to satisfy the avoidance needs of the worker.

In looking at this and other research, it appears that the bulk of it has been directed toward the general theme of job satisfaction and job adjustment - "how do you like your job?" and "how well do you fit into your job?" It seems that very little has been done on the question of how the job a person holds makes him feel about himself.

In attempting to look at this particular group of attitudes, I would like for us to consider briefly some of the work that has been done by a number of phenomonologists. Snugg and Combs (1959) indicate that there are four characteristics which seem to underly the behavior of a truly adequate person.

1. A positive view of the self - this means people see themselves as people who are liked, wanted and accepted, persons of dignity, integrity, worth, and importance. They do have some negative ways of regarding themselves, but the total image of the self is fundamentally positive. (No one feels great all the time, but adequate people are happier more than inadequate). They see themselves as adequate. Negative aspects are taken in stride.

People with a positive self concept are usually well-adjusted people. They make contributions to themselves as well as to society. It is the people who view themselves as unliked, unworthy, unimportant, or inadequate who fill our jails, mental hospitals, and institutions. These are the mal-adjusted, the desperate ones against whom we must protect ourselves, or the defeated ones, who must be sheltered and protected from life. It is the inadequate who succumb to brainwashing. Psychotherapists have repeatedly observed that improvement in mental health is correlated with a stronger more positive view of self.

A positive view of self gives a person a tremendous advantage in dealing with life. He meets life expecting to be successful. If one expects success, then he behaves in ways that tend to bring success about. "The rich get richer, and the poor get poorer." If one has a positive view of self, he is less upset by criticism, remains stable in the midst of strain, and is able to trust your own impulses. He has doubts and hesitations, and can pay more attention to events outside the self. A strong self can be forgotten on occasion, whereas the weak self must be forever cared for and protected.

A strong self provides security. One can venture into the new and unknown, without being afraid. It permits creativity and originality.

People develop a feeling that they are liked, wanted, and accepted from having been being told so, and through the experience of being so treated. To feel lovable, one must have been loved. So to produce a positive self, it is necessary to provide experiences that teach individuals they are positive people.

II. Identification With Others - Some people remain throughout their whole lives capable of concern for little more than their own welfare. Truly adequate people have greatly expanded feelings of the self. It is a feeling of oneness with fellow man. A feeling of belonging, of sharing a common fate, of striving for a common goal. It represents a real extension of the self. People are concerned only for their own self, are inadequate, lonely and usually maladjusted.

When an adequate person is identified with others, we see a high degree of responsible, trustworthy behavior. One does not behave in ways likely to harm or injure others, for that would harm and injure one's self. Strong people respect the dignity and worth of others. They are incapable of true selfishness. They are usually very democratic, very sensitive to feelings and attitudes of others. Their motives are "other centered" rather than "self centered." Pity, compassion, warmth, and humanity are important. They can work harmoniously with others. They do not have to be the leader, but can lead or follow as the situation demands.

Identification, like self-concept, is learned. Truly adequate people can identify even with those who are antagonistic to them. They have the confidence to withstand attacks of others. Whereas the insecure self can identify only with those who make him feel safe and secure, positive people can identify with a much broader sample of mankind.

III. Openness to Experience and Acceptance - Adequate people's perceptual field is capable of change and adjustment. The more secure the individual's self is, the less he will feel threatened by events and the more open he can be in relating to the world about him. He has the capacity to confront life openly, and is capable of acceptance. Feeling positive makes it less necessary to be defensive, therefore one can be open to experience and is able to accept things as they are, whether or not they may tend to threaten him.

Adequate people behave more intelligently, for intelligence is the ability to behave more effectively and efficiently. They are more decisive, because they have a broader knowledge of the world, thus having more data to base their decisions on. They tend to set more realistic goals, thus are able to achieve these goals. They behave in ways which bring success. Adequate people can develop the capacity to meet the world openly and gladly.

Openness and acceptance is not inborn, but is learned. Adequate people can develop the capacity of openness of acceptance, and can teach this to others. It is essential to be able to meet the handicap or hardship (openness) and to deal with it accordingly (acceptance) in order to be an adequate person. The adequate person does not give up when something does not go his way.

IV. A Rich and Available Perceptual Field - People cannot be adequate and stupid at the same time. Truly adequate people are well informed. The definition of well informed changes each year as our world becomes more technical, but adequate people "keep up." A person can develop rich perceptual fields not only from formal learning, but from everyday

experiences. Truly adequate persons NOT only possess more information, but are able to produce these when needed and put them to effective use.

A rich and available perceptual field makes people behave more effectively and efficiently, in other words, more intelligently. It is easy to see that a person could do a better job if he had and knew how to use many tools, than if he just had and knew how to use a hammer and a screw driver for every task, no matter what it was.

Persons gain rich perceptual fields by the kinds of experiences they are exposed to. The richer the opportunities, the richer the field developed. The more adequate and positive the self, the more time one can spend wandering away from the self, gaining more experience and knowledge, thus producing a richer perceptual field.

So we see a sort of cycle. To get along in life successfully, one must have a positive view of himself, thus enabling him to identify with many people. One would then be able to accept new ideas more readily, and be open to new experiences. This would gain for the person a richer and more available perceptual field, which in turn would reinforce the self concept, making that self a more adequate person.

In a recent A.S.C.D. publication, Earl C. Kelly (1969) described the fully functioning person. He indicated that:

1. The fully functioning person thinks well of himself. He looks at himself and likes what he sees well enough so that he can accept it. This is essential to doing, to "can-ness." He sees himself as able in terms of his experience and feels that he can perform well on the basis of his experience.

Those who dislike what they see are the fearful ones. They take a fearful view of everything in general. Fear renders these people helpless, and this in turn leads to alienation from others and hostility toward others.

2. The fully functioning person thinks well of others. This seems to come about automatically where the positive self-concept exists because of the oneness of the self-other relationship. It is doubtful that there can be a self except in relation to others, and to accept one implies the acceptance of the other. This acceptance of others opens a whole new world with which to relate. It is the opposite of the hostility which results from non-acceptance of self.

3. The adequate person <u>thinks well of others</u>. He sees that other people are the same stuff out of which he is built. He therefore has a selfish interest in the quality of those around him and has responsibility in some degree for that quality. The whole matter of selfishness and altruism disappear when he realizes that self and others are independent - that we are indeed our brother's keeper, and he ours. Becoming aware of mutual need tends to modify human behavior. He comes to see other people as opportunities, not for exploitation, but for the building of self.

4. <u>The adequate person sees himself as a part of a world in movement</u> - in process of becoming. This follows from the whole notion of self and others, and the acceptance that they can feed off each other and hence can

improve. When one looks outward rather than inward, the idea of change--in self, in others, in things--becomes apparent. The acceptance of change as a universal phenonmenon brings about modifications of personality. The person who accepts change and expects it behaves differently from the person who seeks to get everything organized so that it will be fixed from now on. He will not search for the firm foundation on which he can stand for the rest of his life. He will realize that the only thing he knows for sure about the future is that tomorrow will be different from today and that he can anticipate this difference with hopeful expectation.

5. Optimism is the natural outcome of an accepting view of self and hence of others. Such a person is a doer, a mobile person, one who related himself in an active way with others. Such activity would be meaningless unless the person had hopes for improvement. As has been stated, today has no meaning except in relation to an expected tomorrow. This is the basis for hope without which no one can thrive. Improvement is that which enhances and enriches self and others. Neither can be enhanced by itself.

6. The fully functioning personality, having accepted the ongoing *nature of life and the dynamics of change, sees the value of mistake.* He knows he will be treading new paths at all times, and that, therefore, he cannot always be right. Rigid personalities suffer much from their need to be always right. The fully functioning personality will not only see that mistakes are inevitable in constantly breaking new ground, but will come to realize that these unprofitable paths show the way to better ones. Thus, a mistake, which no one would make if he could forsee it, can be profitable. In fact, much of what we know that is workable comes from trying that which is not. In our culture, it seems that most of our moral code is based on the values of rigid people who cannot bear to be wrong, and so making a mistake is almost sinful. The effective person cannot afford to have his spirit of adventure thus hampered. He knows that the only way to find out is to go forward and to profit from experience-- to make experience an asset.

7. The fully functioning self, seeing the importance of people, develops and holds human values. There is no one, of course, who does not come to hold values. Values come about through the life one lives, which determines what one comes to care about. The better the life, the better the values accumulated. The one who sees human beings as essential to his own enhancement develops values related to the welfare of people. Holding these values in a world which most people consider to be static, he encounters problems in meeting static mores. He is, therefore, on the creative edge of the generally accepted mores or morals. Values in terms of what is good for all people are continuously in conflict with materialistic values held by the majority.

8. He knows no other way to live except in keeping with his values. He has no need continuously to shift behavior, depending upon the kind of people nearest him. He has no need for subterfuge or deceit, because he is motivated by the value of facilitating self and others. While treading new paths is fraught with risk, he does not have to engage in a continuous guessing game to make his behavior match new people and also to be consistent with what he has done before. A fully functioning person holding human values, doesn't have to ask himself constantly what it was he said last week.

9. Since life is ever-moving and ever-becoming, the fully functioning person is cast in a creative role. But more than simply accepting this role, he sees creation going on all around him. He sees that creation is not something which occurred long ago and is finished, but that it is now going on, and that he is part of it. He sees the evil of the static personality because it seeks to stop the process of creation to which we owe our world and our being. He exults in being a part of this great process and in having an opportunity to facilitate it. Life to him means discovery and adventure, flourishing because it is in tune with the universe.

In looking at the disadvantaged worker in Kelly's framework it is apparent that he generally holds an extremely low concept of himself. Cooley (1902) describes just how this concept of self develops in couplet form:

"Each to each a looking-glass
Reflects the other that doth pass."

In other words, this self-concept is formed by the reactions of other people in a person's environment to the way he behaves. In the case of the disadvantaged worker, most of these reactions have been negative. Perhaps the feedback from members of his own family has been negative in nature.

In the case of the disadvantaged Black male, many times there is no male model to assist in his role definition in his home environment. He also learns very rapidly that girls are better than boys in this matriarchal society. With these debilitating influences, the development of a negative self-concept is the logical product.

Certainly the feedback from the schools has been negative since they reject the disadvantaged child's whole value system, and in too many cases reject him along with his value system. At least the disadvantaged person perceives this rejection of his values as rejection of himself. Again considering the disadvantaged Black male, no male model is available in the early school years. The disadvantaged person has almost certainly received negative feedback from various functionaries in welfare. Even the acceptance of welfare assistance has been debilitating to his self-concept. It is also possible that he has felt unaccepted by the people who have channeled him into a program of vocational training where he gained the skills which enabled him to hold a job. Perhaps the disadvantaged begins to get his first positive feedback in a vocational class. I am wondering if he is getting as much positive feedback there as he should be. The disadvantaged person has little reason to think well of others. The experiences he has had with other people are so negative that he feels nothing but frustration and hostility toward other people. His experiences cause him to feel that no one is concerned with his welfare. He perceives that there are few people he can trust. Amos (1968) points out that disadvantaged children have little chance to learn about the social roles and positions occupied by the people of middle class America. They have little opportunity to learn through play imitation, to take on a variety of social roles. This hinders the disadvantaged person in developing the ability to "take the role of another" to see things from a variety of perspectives, or to play a variety of roles.

The parent's interaction with these children tends to be highly punitive in nature. This behavior doesn't cause the child to think well of himself or of others, nor does it cause him to trust others.

Since the disadvantaged worker does not think well of others, it is highly doubtful that he will see his stake in others. He is unable to relate to others. He does not see them as made of the same "stuff" that he is made of. He hardly has the capability to realize that he and other people are interdependent and have mutual need for each other. He doesn't see other people as opportunities for self enhancement but rather as opportunities for exploitation.

The disadvantaged person does not see himself as a part of a whole world in movement. He sees himself detatched. He feels no affinity for the people around him. He is insecure. He can neither accept nor cope with change. He is immobile in a highly mobile culture - in a culture that will become infinitely more mobile in the future.

The fully functioning person is optimistic. Certainly the disadvantaged person has nothing to be optimistic about. He views his plight as hopeless. Even after all of his struggling, he has found so many doors closed to him that at some point he ceases to try to batter them down. In short he gets tired of butting his head against a brick wall. It has been said that many of these disadvantaged people "just don't want to work." I would present to you the idea that rather they have had so few success experiences that they don't have any hope left. They have little reason for optimism.

The fully functioning person sees the value of mistake in the overall picture of life and the dynamics of change. The disadvantaged person can only view the mistakes he has made as occasions which contribute to his discomfort. Mistakes are not tolerated by the rigid people in our society. They are not used for learning and as a basis for moving into the unknown. In education we punish mistakes rather than use them as learning experiences. This punishment is therefore associated with mistakes by the disadvantaged person.

The fully functioning person develops and holds human values. Of course this is not true of the disadvantaged person, because of his negative self-concept. The way he feels about others is contrary to establishing human values. His lack of trust in people is antithetical to the establishment of these values.

The fully functioning person knows no other way to live except in keeping with his values. On the other hand the disadvantaged person has continuous need to shift behavior. He must constantly behave in a manner that benefits himself - many times to insure his continued survival. He must constantly engage in guessing games with people who control his existence.

The fully functioning person is cast in a creative role. This role in no way fits the disadvantaged. Creativity implies future. The disadvantaged person is now-oriented.

It would seem that, in the case of disadvantaged people, we get a rather late start in helping them to become fully functioning persons. In many cases the school is the first institution that might help the child to enhance his self-concept, but rather than enhancing the self-concept we tend to tear it down even further. We are much more interested in maintaining standards than in enhancing children.. We are much more likely to provide disadvantaged students with experiences of failure than with success experiences and failure is debilitating to the self.

Perhaps the first success that many of these children experience is in some vocational class. If this is the case, there is the implication of two broad problem areas in the vocational program. The first of these problem areas is that vocational education begins much too late in the sequence. If we must go to a vocational class to find success experiences for these disadvantaged children, let's do it much sooner than we have been.

The other problem area is the one that seems to be with us perennially. This is the problem of lack of consistency throughout the total school curriculum. The student experiences success in the vocational classes, but must still experience failure in some of the academic classes which he is still required to take.

There is also some action implicit in the statement that some students experience their first success in a vocational class. Some vocational teachers are taking this action, but many are not. This success experience can open the door for the vocational teacher to begin working with the student toward enhancing himself. As I talk to vocational teachers, I hear a lot of talk about developing a salable skill. I think this is necessary, but the teacher can miss the boat completely if he doesn't work with the student in developing a better self-concept and arriving at positive attitudes toward work.

Following vocational training, we become concerned with placement. I view people in placement as moving toward a stance of increased emphasis on human values. This change is assisting some disadvantaged persons to enhance their concepts of self.

Once the disadvantaged person has been placed, the job experience has a vital effect on how the individual feels about himself. The number and quality of previous success experiences can be critical in determining whether or not a person will be able to adjust to a job. In order for the job to help the disadvantaged worker to build a more positive self-concept, he must find many more gratifying experiences than he has had in the past. Undoubtedly, the simple fact that he is earning money to provide for himself and his family will help him to feel better about himself. It would seem to follow reasonably that the successful performance of tasks on the job (just experiencing some success) would contribute to the enhancement of his self-concept. This disadvantaged worker may have a foreman who appreciated a job performed well and doesn't hesitate to tell the employee about it. This praise and respect should also have a positive effect on the employee's self-concept. Positive job experience implies that the disadvantaged worker is at least beginning to relate well to others. In fact, if this is not the case, the job will probably be terminated. As

was indicated earlier, these positive relationships with people tend to build confidence, trust, and acceptance and the feelings of frustration and hostility tend to diminish.

By accepting and identifying more with others, the disadvantaged worker becomes more capable of accepting change, he becomes more optimistic. He has some cause for optimism. He feels more secure and more adequate.

Perhaps positive job experience will not make fully-functioning persons of disadvantaged workers, but at least it can help them to function at increasingly higher levels.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Amos, William E. and Jean Dresden Grambs, Counseling the Disadvantaged Youth. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1962 Yearbook, Arthur W. Combs, Chairman, Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming. Washington: National Education Association, 1962.

Carroll, Herbert A., Mental Hygiene. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.

Combs, Arthur W. and Donald Snygg, Individual Behavior. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959.

Crites, J. O., Vocational Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969.

Herzberg, Frederick, Work and the Nature of Man. Cleveland: The World Publishing Company, 1966.

Industrial Arts for Disadvantaged Elementary Children

Panel: Leflore County Schools *
Greenwood, Mississippi

Philosophy of the School System

Every child in our school system should be introduced to the world of work and given a basic understanding of the free enterprise system. There is no one level at which introductory efforts should be started.

To have a real comprehensive curriculum, vocational and prevocational activities should not be restricted to a few people in the èleventh and twelfth grades, as has been the case in the past, but they should be implemented in the elementary levels and carried on through the junior and senior high school programs.

It is the responsibility of the schools to provide education to meet the needs of its students. One of the first steps in accomplishing this goal is to insert into the curriculum occupational education for everyone. The only way all educational needs of all children can be met is to establish both the college preparatory programs and the vocational-oriented programs as equal partners in all our school systems.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to develop a program of arts and crafts for a rural-area, delta-county school system. Approximately 25 percent of students enrolled in the fifth grade will never complete high school and of those who do, less than half will continue formal education. Vocational education must, of necessity, start early in the life of youth if they are to be given vocational education while they still are in school. The county for which this program is being prepared has a tremendous dropout rate from the first level to the second level. In fact, not more than 14 percent of its high school graduates will receive a college degree.

A child has gone 50 percent of the way in organizing his thinking patterns by the time he is four years old, and 80 percent by the time he is eight. About 50 percent of a child's capacity for learning in school is established by the time he is nine years old. This capacity can be increased later, but it is harder to do. It is a must for a program of this nature to be incorporated, beginning in the first level, to try to keep these students in school.

---

* A panel consisting of the County Superintendent of Education, Leflore County, Principal of the pilot school, Director of the vocational program, Consultant for the Industrial Arts program, Coordinator for the Industrial Arts program, and a teacher who is involved in the program, explained the program to participants in Institute IV.

Objectives

Arts and crafts in the elementary levels should not be compared with a program of similar nature in the secondary school. Rather, it is a means by which the regular school curriculum can be enriched. Arts and crafts will not solve the teaching problems in the elementary grades, but it will help reduce the level of abstraction. Other specific objectives of arts and crafts at this level are:

1. To put meaning into the learning processes.
2. To provide group relationships and activities.
3. To establish a need for learning.
4. To help children enjoy going to school.
5. To allow a child to accomplish something on his own (probably for the first time).
6. To give the child an insight into various cultural aspects.
7. To introduce the child to the world of work.

The Teaching Staff

Who will be involved in the teaching of occupational education in the elementary levels? Since it has already been established that occupational education activities in the elementary levels should be a motivating factor in the processes of learning, the classroom teacher is the only person who can utilize the many activities involved to the fullest degree. The classroom teacher is the only person who knows exactly what curriculum materials are being studied at a given time and, also the learning abilities of the particular groups of students being taught. The supervisor or consultant will also be a part of the teaching staff. The consultant will make recommendations, but final decisions on how to correlate the occupational education activities with the regular curriculum will rest with the classroom teacher.

The Consultant

Who will make a good consultant and what will be his duties? Since the elementary classroom teacher knows the academic areas involved and since the occupational education activities are what might be termed as physical activities, such as using tools and making projects, a logical choice for a consultant would be an industrial arts major. Because of his specialized training, he should be able to function well in a position of this type. His formal training and experiences should enable him to demonstrate procedures and methods with which teachers of the elementary grades have not come in contact.

The consultant's activities and duties will vary from one school to another, and probably from one classroom to another; however, listed below are some things that are musts in any situation:

1. The consultant is always a resource person.
2. The consultant should have a schedule which provides a time for teachers to sign up for conferences.
3. The consultant should provide ideas for the teachers.
4. The consultant should oversee classroom work as often as possible.

5. The consultant should provide a program of in-service education for all classroom teachers.
6. The consultant should keep up professionally with trends and developments in both elementary education and occupational education.
7. The consultant (along with the principal) is responsible for getting the program started.
8. The consultant is responsible for informing the public about the program through civic organizations, P.T.A. and by word-of-mouth.

Facilities

With a little rearranging there are a number of places in the school that could be used for an elementary arts and crafts work area. One suggestion is to use a part of the regular classroom for that purpose. Another idea is to set up one room in the school exclusively for this type of work and to let all elementary levels schedule it at different periods throughout the week. Still another possible place could be the regular shop setting for industrial arts.

Probably an ideal situation would be a combination of two of the above suggestions. The regular classroom could be organized to handle what might be termed as light arts and crafts work--that is, doing things like project planning, painting signs, construction paper work papermache, mobiles, and any other of the activities that would not disturb adjoining classes. Then, to make the program more meaningful, the elementary classes could be scheduled into the regular industrial arts shop. (This could be done one to two periods a day, during the regular industrial arts teacher's conference periods.) During this time the elementary students could work on what might be called heavy arts and crafts--such things as wood, metal, and leather projects. The length of the work period should vary according to level from two or three thirty-minute periods per week on the first level to three or four fifty-minute periods per week on the sixth level.

Two or more teachers at the same grade level should schedule their classes in the shop at the same time. This would give the students an opportunity to work with someone other than their own classroom mates and would also provide a great opportunity for the teachers to exchange ideas and do some real team-teaching.

Tools Needed

Much consideration should be given to the selection of tools for an elementary arts and crafts program. In most cases, the student will be coming into contact with tools of this type and variety for the first time, and it is imperative that the using of these tools in his beginning experiences be a joyful one. Some important things to keep in mind when selecting tools are: select the right tools to fit the job; select quality tools (this will be cheaper in the long run); select tools that fit the students (small but quality tools are on the market at the present time that will fit the physical capacity of the elementary child).

In addition to the above suggestions, maintain the tools so they will be in a good usable condition at all times (a tool in poor condition is a dangerous one). A basic tool list that will accommodate from twenty to forty students is listed below:

1 Auger bit set	3 tin snips
2 Bit braces, 8"	2 hand drills
4 back saws	3 key hole saws
16 "C" clamps, 4"	2 nail sets
12 coping saws	6 block planers
8 cross-cut saws	6 jr. jack planes
1 counter sink	2 side cutter pliers, 6"
2 dividers, 6"	1 rip saw
6 assorted files	6 rulers, 1"
6 hammers, 7 oz.	2 scratch awls
4 try squares, 6"	3 screwdrivers, 4"
6 wood rasps	12 scissors
6 vices	4 combination squares
2 combination pliers, 6"	1 adjustable wrench, 6"

Curriculum and Student Projects and Activities

The teachers are free to utilize the tools and equipment from the Industrial Arts department in any manner they feel will add to their class. The following are examples of projects for students at each grade level:

1. Kindergarten - make projects with clay
2. 1st grade - make a clock with movable hands
3. 2nd grade - design and use play money
4. 3rd grade - make a simple ruler
5. 4th grade - make scenery for a play
6. 5th grade - make a scale drawing of some building in the community
7. 6th grade - make a weather vane

This list only suggest some typical projects that could be utilized to help physically demonstrate some aspect of a lesson taught. The only limitation for projects would be the teacher's and students' imagination.

In-Service Education for the Classroom Teacher

Most elementary classroom teachers have not had the formal training needed to handle the many tools that are employed in an arts and crafts program. Therefore, an in-service training program is necessary if the program is to be a success. These teachers require training in general principles of handling each tool as well as how to utilize most effectively the tools in a classroom situation.

Summary

This program has been very well received by the students in this school system. It is felt that the program has prevented some dropouts by increasing the student's interest in school and by removing some of the formal lecture sessions from the classes. The program also has helped students to develop motor skills and has served to reinforce learning. However, in order to have the most effective program of this kind, the teacher must be very enthusiastic and dedicated, and must be a person who is concerned for the welfare of the children to the extent that he will make every effort to prevent accidents which could result from the use of the tools.

Generally this program has been very successful in this school, and it should have many worthwhile qualities for other schools. With the proper administration, coordination, supervision, and teaching, this program will be a success and will add many enjoyable experiences to the lives of the kindergarten through the sixth grade students.

New Directions in Programs of Vocational Education for the Culturally Limited

John E. Codwell *

Please permit me to extend my thanks to all concerned for the privilege of participating in such a professionally invigorating experience provided by involvement in this Institute.

I have chosen to give my presentation this title: "New Directions in Programs of Vocational Education for the Culturally Limited." The content of my presentation includes the following six major points:

I. A Brief Description of the Southern Association's Rural Education Improvement Project

II. The Citation of Five of America's Culture Paradoxes

III. The Identification of Four Imperative Concerns Which Face Those with a Special Interest in Vocational Education

IV. The Posing of a Question of Direction Toward Appropriateness and Relevance

V. The Listing of Five Needed Steps for Appropriate and Relevant Programs of Vocational Education for the Culturally Limited

VI. A Concluding Statement

In order that all of us might have mutual understanding in terms of the semantics employed in this presentation, I will use the term "vocational education" realizing that quite often the terms "occupational education," "technical education," etc., also are utilized to mean the same thing.

Likewise, the term "culturally limited" will be frequently utilized when reference is made to those pupils and students customarily identified as disadvantaged.

I. The Southern Association's Rural Education Improvement Project

The Rural Education Improvement Project is an effort involving three rural centers located in Overton County, Tennessee; Wewahitchka, Florida; and Wheeler County, Georgia. Each rural center program is a consortium of the school system concerned, two or more institutions of

---

* Dr. Codwell is Deputy Director, Education Improvement Project, Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, Atlanta Georgia.

higher learning, the respective state departments of education, and the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. Funds for the project are provided by the Danforth Foundation for the general operation of the project, and by the Noyes Foundation for the teacher education component of the project.

The basic purpose of the project is to interrupt the cycle of cultural limitation in which many of the pupils in the project have been trapped too long.

The basic purpose and specific objectives of the project are implemented into an action program of educational improvement in each rural center through the following interventions and activities:

1. Teacher Education (preservice and inservice)
2. Communication and Computational Skill Development
3. Family Involvement
4. Cultural Enrichment
5. School-Home-Community Agent Liaison Service
6. Tool Technology and Integrated Vocational Education
7. Extended School Year Program
8. Progress in Learning (ungraded) School Arrangements

A special staff at each center composed of the following persons works with other teachers in the system in making operative the detailed strategies and activities related to the specific interventions:

1. A project director
2. A project secretary
3. An evaluator
4. Reading specialists
5. Speech specialists
6. Industrial Arts and Vocational Education specialists
7. Para-professional aides

II. A Culture of Paradoxes

For one to gain and retain the proper perspective in which all elements of formal education must be viewed--and particularly all aspects of vocational education--one must be reminded that America is Public Exhibit No. 1 of what I like to refer to as a culture of paradoxes. I will make a quick reference to five of these culture paradoxes, so apparent in American life, and which must be viewed in proper perspective if we are going to improve opportunities and services in the field of vocational education, particularly for pupils who have been in an opportunity-limited culture.

No. One -- The Paradox of Affluence and Poverty. America is frequently referred to as this world's most affluent nation, and yet within this affluence there exists an "eating cancer" of poverty. Much of the difficulty in planning and implementing programs of formal education (including vocational education) for all of America's young people and adults is probably attributable in part to the fact that

one-fifth of the people in this country have 90 percent of its wealth, which leaves four-fifths of the American population with the remaining 10 percent on which to survive--not live--merely survive.

No. Two -- The Paradox of Educational Funds Available and the Non-Readability of American Boys and Girls. This country is spending billions of dollars in the area of formal education and yet there are startling facts which indicate most visibly that "Johnny can't read." Permit me to cite some of the documentation in support of Johnny's non-readability.

- Despite the long-standing effort of U. S. schools to overcome reading disabilities, more than 15,000,000 of our 51,500,000 elementary pupils--three out of every ten--suffer from reading deficiencies which prevent their full progress as pupils. (1)

- One our of every four pupils nationwide has significant reading deficiencies. (2)

- In large city school systems up to half of the pupils read below expectation. (2)

- Approximately 5,000,000 youthful job seekers are functional illiterates, unable to read or comprehend any work-related materials. (1)

No. Three -- The Paradox of Man's Tremendous Knowledge About Human Behavior and Yet the Hate and Disregard for Human Dignity that Still Persists. It is a well-known fact that twentieth century man knows more about human behavior than has ever been known, and yet what Robert Burns referred to as "man's inhumanity to man" still persists in all-too-many visible forms.

No. Four -- The Paradox of a World Neighborhood (Geographically Speaking), But a World Non-Brotherhood (Socially Speaking). Man's conquest of time and space through his inventions of the various types of aircraft has resulted in this world becoming, geographically speaking, a neighborhood, for man within a few hours can move from almost any country in this world to another. How regrettable it is that man's ability to conquer time and space has made this world a neighborhood, but man's disregard of man and his dignity keeps this world neighborhood from becoming a world brotherhood.

No. Five -- The Paradox of our Claimed Commitment to Individual Differences and the Inappropriateness and Irrelevancy of What we Teach and How we Teach It. This No. Five Paradox probably has the greatest meaning for those assembled at this meeting. There are those of us in the field of education who continue to preach the sermon of regard for individual differences, and yet we continue to practice the actuality of developing curricula that are inappropriate and sponsoring instructional methodology that is irrelevant. Your speaker of the afternoon would have to agree with you, if you contend that there is no priority concern in

American education that has a higher rank than the need for appropriate and relevant programs of vocational education, particularly for the culturally limited section of the American population.

III. Four Imperative Concerns Which Face Those Concerned About Vocational Education

Either before or concurrent with our attempt to alleviate the discomforts in vocational education (particularly for the culturally limited), which discomforts have accrued from these cultural paradoxes (especially the last one), and which take expression primarily in curriculum inappropriateness and instructional irrelevance, one should take a look at the differences in this present culture compared with what they were when those of of us over 30 lived as children. Permit me to refer to each of these four imperative concerns.

Imperative Concern # 1. A first imperative facing today's educators (particularly those committed to improving vocational education for the culturally limited) is the necessity to realize that this is a different world from the one in which they lived as children. Emerging developments in such areas as mass education, space age science, human life science, transportation, automation and technology, and education invention and innovation provide evidence of the way in which this world differs from the one of yesterday. What is so important for all of us to accept in this new kind of world is that many traditional concepts and practices in all fields of education (and particularly in vocational education) are both inappropriate and irrelevant.

Imperative Concern # 2. A second imperative facing today's educators (particularly those committed to improving vocational education) is the need to realize that a different kind of pupil is operating in this different world culture. Whereas children in the past spent much time with their parents and other grown-ups, present day children spend most of their time with other children and watching television. Less and less time is spent with parents and other adults. Brofenbrenner (3) of Cornell University and one of the founding fathers of Head Start, states that the child's psychological development (to the extent that it is susceptible to environmental invluence) is determined almost entirely within the first six years of his life. If true, there could result, and probably does, different behavior effects manifested by children by virtue of their spending less time with their parents and other adults. Also, as the now famous Coleman (4) report claims, the most important factor affecting the child's intellectual achievement is the pattern of characteristics of the peer group with whom the child associates, there could result and probably does, different behavior effects manifested by these children who now spend most of their time with these peer associates.

Imperative Concern # 3. A third imperative facing today's educators (particularly those committed to improving vocational education) is the necessity to realize that operating in this different world culture is a different kind of teacher -- a teacher no longer concerned solely with middle and upper-class pupils, but a teacher who is aware of the fact that his is a role of teaching all pupils -- the culturally limited as well as the advantaged, the poor as well as the rich, the black as well as the non-black, and the superior as well as the inferior.

Imperative Concern # 4. A fourth imperative facing today's educators (particularly those committed to improving vocational education) is the necessity to realize that operating in this different world culture is a different kind of parent and community citizen. In many communities it is being increasingly emphasized that parents and other community citizens supply the two main ingredients in the "educational cake" -- the children and the money -- and thus they feel that they are entitled to more extensive involvement in what happens to their children, educationally speaking, notwithstanding the fact that many parents and other community citizens lack the ability to make formal contributions to the educational process. Any educator who disregards this kind of parent and other community citizens may be likened unto the ostrich who sticks his head in the sand and loses sight of this changing world as it passes him by. (5)

IV. A Question of Direction Toward Appropriateness and Relevance

In the light of (1) this culture of paradoxes, and (2) the recognition that there are many changing components in this changing world, the resulting question so apropos for us here seems to be this: "What can educators do to alleviate a very evident discomfort resulting from the absence of an appropriate curriculum and a relevant instructional methodology in the field of vocational education?"

V. Some Suggested Needed Steps for Appropriate and Relevant Programs of Vocational Education

Suggestion # 1. We must discard as rapidly as possible the concept that work done primarily with the hands has a lower prestige status than work done primarily with the mind. Professional educators can and should take the lead in this change by providing in their own institutions appropriate and relative programs of vocational education and attaching to these programs all the prestige, all the "halo," all the recognition, all the rewards, and all the awards, etc., that accompany the more verbal and symbolic programs of formal learning.

Suggestion # 2. We must discard as rapidly as possible any vestiges of the concept that programs of vocational education should be offered only for pupils with verbal limitations and whose impoverishment in this connection has caused them to perform poorly in what we erroneously term the "academic" school tasks. An appropriate and relevant program of vocational education which focuses upon basically useful knowledge and the comprehension of fundamental skills with

wide application for training both specialists and non-specialists will be proportionately as beneficial to the highly verbal child as to the pupil with verbal limitations.

Suggestion # 3. We must continue to accelerate the rather slowly disappearing notion that a vocational education program or its antecedent should not be formally introduced to a pupil until he is in his high school years. We have only to remind ourselves that there is ample evidence to support the view that even very young pupils are capable of much deeper involvement in learning in its various types than was previously thought. Lagemann (6) contends that it was formerly thought that children could not do real thinking until they were 8, 9, or 10 years old. Today, however, claims Lagemann, in many classrooms throughout the country, youngsters 5, 6, and 7 are proving that this assumption is wrong. Children are learning physics in the first grade, and using slide rules to plot equations in the third grade. Lagemann goes on to say that Jerome S. Bruner, Harvard psychologist, contends that any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development. Furthermore, to delay any formal learning until a pupil is in high school is to disregard the time period at which most of a pupil's intelligence development takes place. Bloom (7) points out rather specifically that in terms of intelligence measured at the age of 17, about 50 percent of the development takes place between conception and the age of 4; about 30 percent between the ages of 4 and 8; and 20 percent between the ages of 8 and 17. If 80 percent, or four-fifths of a pupil's intelligence development occurs between birth and 8 years, to by-pass this potential period for learning is somewhat of an "educational sin."

Two years ago, one of the centers in our rural education improvement project introduced a "Tool Technology" program for 25 kindergarten children. (See Appendix I). The following facts about this kindergarten "Tool Technology" program seem worthy of mention:

1. In the area of cognitive behavior development the pupils in the kindergarten "Tool Technology" class appeared to have more extensive vocabularies than did the pupils in the regular kindergarten classes.

2. In the field of affective behavior development, the "Tool Technology" kindergarten pupils were more creative, more curious, and more independent than were the other kindergarten pupils.

3. In the field of group behavior, the opportunity to build the kindergarten house as a cooperative effort seemed to increase the degree of positive group behavior exhibited by the participating kindergarten pupils.

4. A possible "spin-off" from this kind of a program could tend to alleviate, if not solve, the problem of not enough males in the elementary school to provide worthwhile images for the boys. (The Tool Technology specialist in this program was a man who thoroughly enjoyed his work).

Suggestion # 4. We must by necessity vary programs of vocational education and its antecedents so that those programs provided for reluctant learners, potential dropouts, etc., are "project focused" rather than "subject area" focused.

Suggestion # 5. A school system (Rural or Urban) interested in a sequential program of vocational education (particularly for the culturally limited pupils) might well adopt this sequence:

PRE-SCHOOL AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL

It is suggested that the learning arrangement at this level focus on non-graded, progress in learning, appropriate placement program for teaching about tool functioning. In the development of tool knowledge and the manipulative and fine motor skills basic to later effective vocational education participation, two features of this plan seem just as necessary for developing knowledge and skills for a tool knowledge-fine motor skill development program as they are for developing knowledge and skills in other school subjects. These are: (1) providing the appropriate educational opportunity for the child early in life, and (2) permitting this pupil to progress at his own rate.

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL LEVEL

It is suggested that at this level the non-graded, progress in learning, appropriate placement arrangement be continued. It is felt that a special "tool laboratory" should be substituted at this level for the self-contained classroom.

HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

It is suggested that at the high school level an integrated program be provided for those students who are motivated toward such a program or who are adjudged to be able to profit more from such a program than from the conventional high school academic program. A team of teachers whould be formed consisting of teachers of vocational education, communication skills, mathematics, science, and social studies. They should develop and coordinate an integrated program in which the shop experience and practice will serve as the focal point for the development of programs in other areas. The pupil will be given the feeling of participating in one program rather than in a series of unrelated studies, in which the importance of each area of knowledge and skill will obviously contribute to the total development of the pupil.

The two centers in the SACS Rural Education Improvement Program sponsor such projects (See Appendix II)-- the Overton County, Tennessee Center and the Wheeler County, Georgia Center. The following facts about the integrated vocational education program at Overton County, Tennessee seem worthwhile to mention:

1. During the year immediately prior to the beginning of this project, a little more than one-third of the thirty boys enrolled in the course had poor attendance records. During the two years these boys were in the integrated vocational educational program, the average daily attendance of these boys was a little better than 93 percent. During this two-year period only one boy left the class as a drop-out. Thus, this program improved the general attendance of the participants significantly and almost eliminated the drop-out problem as it related to the participants.

2. During the two years these boys were in the project, none of them made poorer grades in English than they had previously made and 83 percent of them improved noticeably.

3. During the two years these boys were in the project, none of them made poorer grades in mathematics than previously, and almost 80 percent of them improved noticeably.

4. The four teachers in the team -- English, mathematics, science, and vocational education -- met regularly to plan the next period's instructional procedures. It was reported that:

   a. The English, mathematics, and science teachers developed more respect for the vocational education program.

   b. The four teachers learned to enjoy planning much more than they had previously.

VI. A Concluding Statement

Herbert Spencer, who was a great advocate for observance of the roles and laws of good physical health, once said,

> "Nothing will so hasten the time when both mind and body will be adequately cared for as a diffusion of the belief that the preservation of health is a duty and all breaches of the laws of health are physical sins."

Those of us here, who obviously are great advocates of adequate programs of vocational education, could well paraphrase these immortal words of Herbert Spencer in this vein: Nothing will hasten the time when adequate programs of vocational education will be available to all concerned than a commitment to the belief and a dedication to the practice that the opportunity to participate in a vocational education service that is both appropriate for and relevant to his or her needs is the <u>birthright</u> of every American boy and girl, and to deny any boy and girl this American <u>birthright</u> is, to say the least, an educational sin.

REFERENCES

(1) Our New Partnership for the Right to Read. Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington D. C. pp. 1-12.

(2) Allen, James E., Jr. The Right to Read -- Target for the 70's. (Address delivered before the 1969 Annual Convention of the National Association of State Boards of Education, Century Plaza Hotel, Los Angeles, California, Tuesday, September 23, 1969). pp. 1-7.

(3) Brofenbrenner, Urie. "The Split-Level American Family," Saturday Review, October 7, 1967, pp. 60-66.

(4) Coleman, James S. Equality of Educational Opportunity, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1966. p. 737.

(5) Codwell, John E. Changing the Learning Patterns of the Culturally Limited. (An address delivered at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, and printed in Reading Goals for the Disadvantaged, 1969-70. pp. 23-33.)

(6) Lagemann, John Kord. "A New Way for Children to Learn." The Redbook, February, 1964.

(7) Bloom, Benjamin S. Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.

(Codwell presentation continued)

APPENDIX I

RE: House Built by Pupils in Kindergarten[1]
Tool Technology Class

Rural Education Improvement Project

Overton County, Tennessee

---

[1]In the development of a kindergarten "tool-centered program" it should be emphasized that there are two features of this plan which are just as contributive to tool knowledge and fine motor skill development as they are to increasing knowledge and skills in other school subjects. They are (1) providing the appropriate educational opportunity for the child early in his life, and (2) permitting this pupil to progress at his own rate.

FIVE-YEAR-OLDS BUILD HOUSE

One five-year-old can account for an untold number of incidents and ideas, just ask any young mother, but twenty-five.....Well, the twenty-five in Mrs. Isabel Garrett's kindergarten at Allons built a house!

That's right, a house, and they named it "The Maxwell House." The "Maxwell House" began four months ago when Charles Stanley Maxwell Tool Technician for Overton County Kindergartens, instructed the Allons students in the use of the tools of the carpenter. At the end of the discussion, Maxwell fully expected the youngsters to suggest building a bird house; other kindergarten children had made this request, but he frankly admits he wasn't prepared for the answer he received when he asked, "Now, what would you like to build?"

These twenty-five enterprising youngs wanted to build a house. How tall? This tall, they measured for Mr. Maxwell as they stretched their arms high above their heads, giving firm indication they wanted to construct a house they could walk into, furnish and decorate.... and so the Maxwell House at Allons began.

Work sessions were confined to thirty minutes each week, the time regularly allotted for the class taught by Mr. Maxwell. The young instructor is quick to add that the children did all of the work and labor themselves. He merely gave direction and held the pieces of wood and other materials as they diligently hammered and sawed while the house took on its grand state.

The house has a door and a window; it is furnished with a chair of sorts; it too was built by the students, and an electric light furnished by an extension cord. Its outside isn't brick or stone, but its cardboard cover looks just fine to the builders.

Mrs. Garrett states her young students are quick to show off their creation, but they are just as intense in their protection of it. They refuse to allow the older children in the school, or visitors, to behave in such a way that might result in damage of any kind to "The Maxwell House."

(Codwell presentation continued)

APPENDIX II

RE: House Built by Students in Integrated[1] Vocational Education Program

Rural Education Improvement Project

Overton County, Tennessee

---

[1]The program gets its name "integrated" by virtue of the fact that it is a well-fused plan of English, mathematics, science, and industrial vocational education. The natural relationship of each of these subjects to the other is used (1) for augmenting knowledge, and (2) constantly reinforcing the relationship between industrial-vocational education and the so-called academic subjects.

TRADES CLASS HOUSE TO SELL

by Wilbur C. Smith

The Building Trades class at Livingston Academy will hold open house Friday, May 22, to show the public their construction project. Hours will be 10:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. at the project site on Spring Street.

The public may inspect the work of thirty boys who have learned to build a residential house by actually constructing it. Visitors' attention is called to such areas as masonry, carpentry, decorating, electrical wiring, heating, plumbing and cabinet making.

Refreshments will be served during visiting hours by the Home Economics girls. Special invitation will be given to parents of trades students. A picture display showing the erection of the house, step by step, will be presented by Edwin Garrett, School-Home-Community Agent.

The Building Trades boys and Roy Hugh Upton, instructor, will be present to direct each visitor throughout the house and demonstrate the special equipment required for the course. A register will be available for each visitor to sign. The highlight of the day will be the opportunity for each visitor to see himself on a television monitor. Videotape cameras will be installed to film the day's events.

The theme of Vocational Education is "Learn by Doing" and the house just completed is the visible accomplishment of this theme put into practice. This project was started in the fall of 1968 by the General Building Trades class of Livingston Academy. In constructing this project, a three bedroom, living room and kitchen-dining room combination, bath and carport slab, the students received practical experiences in seven major trades. These experiences were in: masonry, carpentry, decorating, electrical wiring, heating, and plumbing.

No better training can be given to a student than a construction project. These experiences have challenged these boys in many areas of learning.

VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND MATURATION

Bert W. Westbrook *

When I began to actually prepare this paper, it became obvious that all the topics dealing with vocational choice and adjustment could not be covered in one topical paper. A workable strategy was needed. Therefore, after considerable study and reflection upon the goals of this institute and the role of vocational maturity among disadvantaged rural youth and adults, I adopted the following plan.

First, I prepared a flow diagram which might represent the movement of an individual from a point in time when he is attempting to make a suitable vocational choice, to a later point in time when he is attempting to make a vocational adjustment.

Second, instead of attempting to cover in depth the many topics which encompass this span of time--and run the risk of overlapping with the other presentations--I shall present a flow chart and show where and how vocational maturity fits into the overall scheme as a person moves toward vocational adjustment.

Basic Characteristics of Rural Disadvantaged

Before presenting the flow chart, I would like to remind you of the basic characteristics of the rural disadvantaged which have been summarized by Edington (1970) in a recent issue of the Review of Educational Research. He concluded that disadvantaged rural youth are affected in seven general areas.

First, their low socioeconomic status is a prime importance in view of the high relationship between socioeconomic status and educational achievement for rural as well as urban children.

Second, their educational and occupational aspirations appear to be negatively affected by their socioeconomic status, possibly further depressed by geographic isolation. (Many who will not be able to make a living by farming do not aspire to any higher skilled urban occupation nor to the educational level which would prepare them for such work.)

Third, they are characterized by attitudes which are nonsupportive of educational progress, low self-esteem, feelings of helplessness in face of seemingly inconquerable environmental handicaps, and impoverished confidence in the value and importance of education as an answer to their problems.

---

* Dr. Westbrook is Associate Professor of Psychology, School of Education, North Carolina State University at Raleigh.

Fourth, the educational achievement of disadvantaged rural students, like their urban and suburban counterparts, is below national norms.

Fifth, higher dropout rates are found among rural than urban pupils.

Sixth, curricula in rural schools are frequently inadequate for and irrelevant to the needs of these students.

Seventh, the cultural experiences of disadvantaged rural youth are limited.

Isolation and poverty are major conditions which limit the child's cultural experiences to his own group and contribute to low level educational progress.

Unfortunately, disadvantaged rural youth have not been the subject of intensive longitudinal and developmental process investigations because they tend to be removed from the major research centers. Previous research involves status studies primarily.

We must be cautious in making generalizations about the rural disadvantaged because there are important variations within subgroups.

While the problems of the rural disadvantaged are similar to other disadvantaged groups, rurality imposes conditions which exacerbate educational problems.

The basic characteristics of the disadvantaged suggest that they may not experience normal vocational development. Hence, the flow chart of vocational adjustment must make provisions for the individual who experiences vocational choice problems as well as vocational adjustment problems.

A Flow Chart of Vocational Adjustment

A flow chart of vocational adjustment is shown in Figure 1. The chart is not a model; it does not include the specific variables that must be taken into account in the vocational development process. At best, the flow chart is a very incomplete picture of a possible sequence of events which attempts to locate points in the vocational development process where questions should be raised regarding the readiness of the pupil to move on the next stage in the process.

At some point in time (high school or post-high school), we can assess the characteristics of the rural disadvantaged on a number of variables in order to help us answer the question in decision box number one: Is the individual ready to begin a formal training program? If the data suggest that he is not ready for training, then we might be able to provide him with appropriate counseling and pre-vocational training such as career exploration and orientation, then retest him to determine whether he is ready to enter the training program.

After the pupil has completed the training program, we can obtain a set of scores which indicate whether the individual is adequately prepared for job entry. If the individual is not ready for job entry, either because of

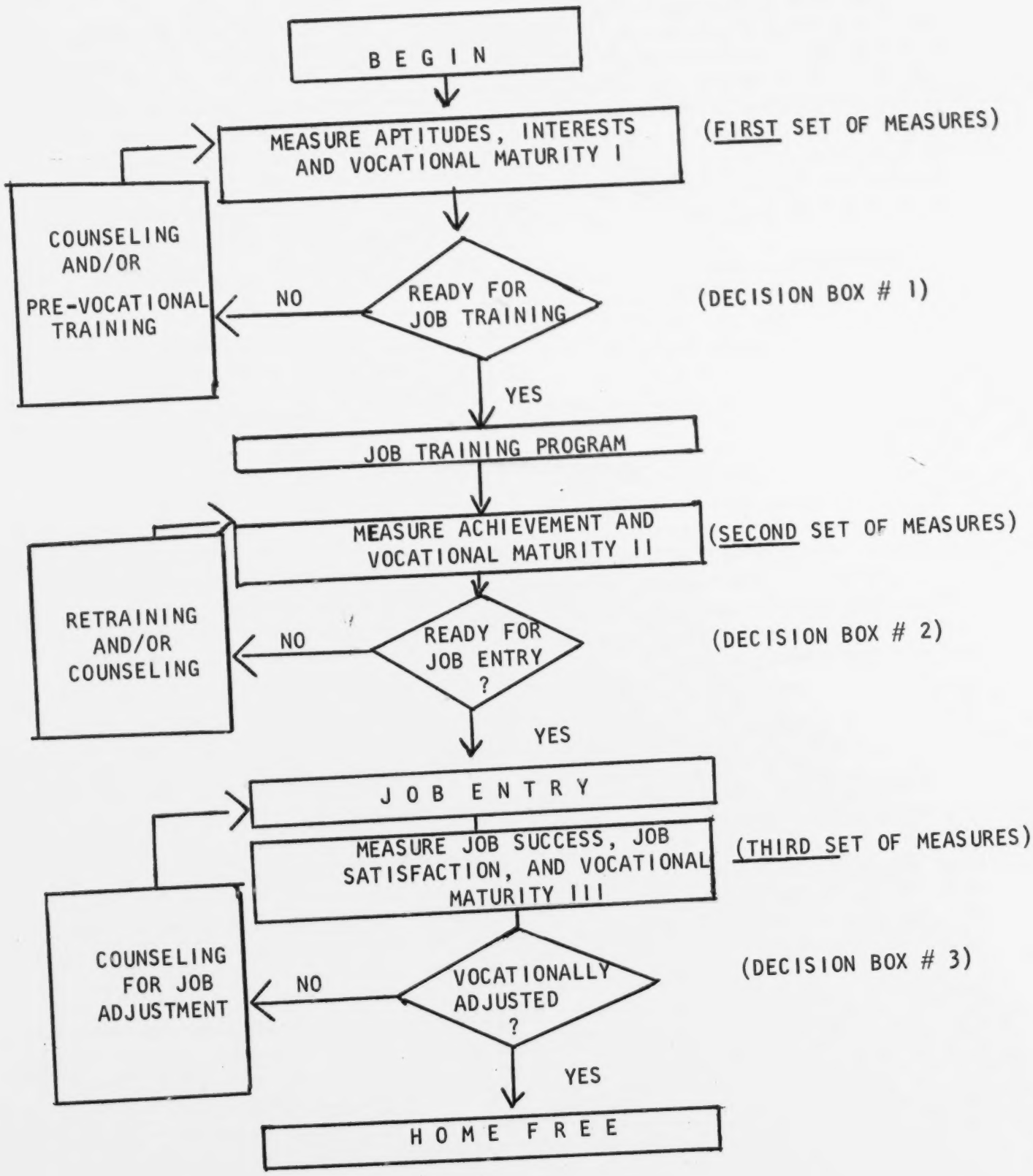


Figure 1
FLOW CHART OF VOCATIONAL ADJUSTMENT

an inadequate curriculum or because of lack of motivation and/or ability, a program for retraining him might be necessary.

When the individual possesses necessary competence and attitudes needed for his chosen occupation, he makes his entry into a specific job. At some point after the individual has been on the job, measures of job success and job satisfaction can be oftained. If these measures indicate the individual is having problems of vocational adjustment, it may be desirable for him to have counseling which could help him adjust to his present job, or perhaps he should change to a different employer with the same or a different job. Hopefully, the individual will eventually be able to experience an acceptable level of success and satisfaction in his chosen occupation.

Admittedly, the flow chart is oversimplified and does not reflect the complexity of the vocational development process. Also, it does not provide us with the criteria for determining whether the individual is ready for training, ready for job entry, or vocationally adjusted. However, the flow chart does help us to distinguish between individuals who are experiencing normal vocational development and those who are having vocational development problems, the latter group being of primary concern to us in this institute. Individuals who are experiencing problems in vocational choice cannot answer "yes" to the question in the first decision box. Individuals who do not possess the competency and attitudes necessary for occupational entry cannot answer "yes" to the question in the second decision box, and those individuals who are not experiencing success and/or satisfaction on the job cannot answer "yes" to the question in the third decision box. Research evidence suggests that the rural disadvantaged are likely to be prime candidates for "no" answers at some or all of these decision points.

Measures Needed in Flow Chart

The measures needed can be classified as measures of readiness for training, measures of readiness for job entry, and measures of vocational adjustment. Measures of readiness for training would likely include aptitude measures and interest measures, as well as measures of vocational maturity. Measures of readiness for job entry include achievement measures and vocational maturity measures. Measures of vocational adjustment include vocational success, vocational satisfaction, and vocational maturity. A list of commonly used measures in each of these areas is included in the Appendices A-E. Appendix F is an outline of a set of measures included in Measures of Occupational Attitudes and Occupational Characteristics (Robinson, Athanasiou, & Head, 1969). Appendix G includes a review of the Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory and Appendix H includes Crites' Vocational Development Inventory. Appendix I includes Gribbons' Readiness for Vocational Planning.* Since vocational maturity measures can be used at all three decision points in the flow chart, the remainder of this paper is devoted primarily to a discussion of vocational maturity and how it fits into the flow chart.

---

* Only Appendices A, B, & C are included in this report.

Vocational Maturity

For many years vocational choice was viewed primarily as a single dicision-making event in which the assessed characteristics of the individual were matched with the human requirements of occupations (Dvorak, 1947; Parson, 1909, Paterson & Darley, 1936; Williamson, 1939). The more recent theories propose that vocational choice is a process which takes place over several years, during which time the individual makes not one but a series of related decisions which determine his career pattern (Dysinger, 1950; Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod, & Herma, 1951; Super, 1953). Consistent with this emphasis upon the longitudinal nature of vocational decision-making is the concept of vocational maturity which has been introduced to refer to the various behavioral dimensions along which vocational development proceeds (Super, 1955).

Development of the Concept of Vocational Maturity

The concept of vocational maturity can be traced to the work of Carter (1940) who studied the development of interests in adolescence and Strong (1943, 1955) whose research with the Interest Maturity Scale suggested that vocational behavior changes systematically with age. Dysinger (1950), however, was the first to indicate the need for a term such as vocational maturity "to express the vocational implications of maturation" and to avoid using such terms as "vocational choice" and "vocational decision" which suggest a point-in-time event.

The first explicit definition of vocational maturity was offered by Super (1955) who described the dimensions along which this type of development might proceed during adolescence and for which measures could be devised, to wit: Orientation to Vocational Choice, Crystallization of Traits, Information and Planning, Consistency of Vocational Preferences, and Wisdom of Vocational Preferences. The specific vocational development behaviors which Super considers to be indicators of vocational maturity have appeared in several sources (Super & Bachrach, 1957; Super, Crites, Hummel, Moser, Overstreet, & Warnath, 1957) and served as a basis for an initial study involving a sample of ninth-grade boys (Super & Overstreet, 1960) as well as follow-up study of the same pupils (Super, Kowalski, & Gotkin, 1967).

In an elaboration of Super's formulation, Crites (1964) presented a pictorial model of the construct of vocational maturity consisting of eighteen variables grouped under four dimensions (Crites, 1965). The model is organized according to the four dimensions: Consistency of Vocational Choice, Wisdom of Vocational Choice, Vocational Choice Competency, and Vocational Choice Attitudes. Each dimension is divided into variables. Consistency of Vocational Choice is sub-divided into Time, Field, Level, and Family. Wisdom of Vocational Choice is subdivided into Abilities, Activities, Interests, and Social Class. Vocational Choice Competency consists of Problem Solving, Planning, Occupational Information, Self-Knowledge, and Goal Selection. Vocational Choice Attitudes include Involvement, Orientation, Independence, Preference, and Conception.

Gribbons and Lohnes (1968), after a careful study of the work carried out in the Career Pattern Study, defined vocational maturity as "Readiness for Vocational Planning," and organized vocational maturity behaviors around eight dimensions: Factors in Curriculum Choice, Factors in Occupational Choice, Verbalized Strengths and Weaknesses, Accuracy of Self-Appraisal, Evidence for Self Rating, Interests, Values, and Independence of Choice. These eight vocational maturity dimensions were developed originally on the basis of "a priori logical considerations" (p.15) but received some empirical support after the data were later collected and analyzed.

The work of Super, Crites, and Gribbons and Lohnes shows that the concept of vocational maturity is more comprehensive than vocational choice; it includes not only the selection of an occupation but also attitudes toward decision making, understanding of job requirements, planning activities, and development of vocational capabilities (Crites, 1965).

A relatively recent development in the measurement of vocational maturity type variables is the work of the National Assessment of Educational Progress. As a part of their assessment program, they have outlined career and occupational development objectives which resemble closely the variables subsumed under vocational maturity. Researchers at AIR have developed an outline of career and occupational development which covers five main areas:

1. Preparation for Making Career Decisions
2. Seek to Improve Career and Occupational Capabilities
3. Possess Skills That are Generally Useful in the World of Work
4. Practice Effective Work Habits
5. Have Positive Attitudes Toward the World of Work

Each of these areas is further broken down into objectives and sub-objectives which state explicit achievements for four age levels: 9, 13, 17, and adult. Test exercises are being written for each of the objectives so that it will be possible to determine the percentage of respondents who have attained a particular objective. Testing will probably be done in 1972.

Application of Measures of Vocational Maturity

Since Super's work in the Career Pattern Study, there has been a demand for measures of vocational maturity variables. If adequate measures of each of the vocational maturity variables were available, they could be used to accomplish at least three important functions.

First, vocational maturity measures could be used with pupils to assess their readiness to make various educational-vocational decisions. An objective set of vocational maturity measures would be valuable to the counselor in identifying those pupils whose general levels of vocational maturity are so low that they are not yet ready to make certain educational and/or vocational decisions. The early identification of pupils with low levels of vocational maturity would enable counselors to provide intensive guidance to those pupils who are in greatest need of assistance.

Second, vocational maturity measures could be used for diagnostic purposes if objective measures were available for each of the vocational maturity variables. A set of measures yielding scores on each variable for each dimension would make it possible to graph an individual's vocational maturity on a profile sheet (Super, 1955). Such a profile, when compared with the profile of a particular norm group, would provide information regarding specific weaknesses requiring remediation before the pupil could make normal progress in his vocational development.

Third, vocational maturity measures could be used for evaluation purposes, At the present time, there is considerable demand for measures which can be used to evaluate objectives dealing with career and occupational development. The need for these types of measures is emphasized in national projects such as the National Assessment of the Progress of Education (1967) and in state projects such as a recently established program in North Carolina to provide occupational exploration in the middle grades (N. C. Department of Public Instruction, 1969).

Measurement of Vocational Maturity

Only a few measures of vocational maturity have been developed and those do not possess the qualities needed for the objective, reliable, and valid measurement of vocational maturity.

The semistructured interview employed in the Career Pattern Study (Super & Overstreet, 1960) required the use of an elaborate scoring manual for assessing the level of vocational maturity revealed in four interviews with ninth-grade boys. The indices used in the Career Pattern Study are too cumbersome for practical purposes and therefore are not likely to be used by the working counselor.

Gribbons and Lohnes (1968) developed a structured interview schedule consisting of 41 open-ended questions designed to measure "Readiness for Vocational Planning." Gribbons and Lohnes' Readiness for Vocational Planning Scales, like Super's Vocational Maturity Indices, requires the use of involved scoring procedures which limit their practical usefulness as well as their utility for research.

Crites (1965) constructed the Vocational Development Inventory (VDI) to measure "the maturity of vocational attitudes in adolescence." However, the VDI is designed to measure only one of the four dimensions of Crites' Vocational maturity model, a dimension labeled Vocational Choice Attitudes. Furthermore, the instrument provides only a single measure for this dimension, whereas, the Crites model includes five separate Vocational Choice Attitudes variables. Therefore, the instrument cannot be used in studying the interrelations among the Vocational Choice Attitudes variables or their relations with other variables. An empirical test of the Crites model will require the development of separate measures of the variables included under each of the four basic vocational maturity dimensions.

Need for Further Research

Although considerable progress has resulted from previous attempts to measure vocational maturity, there are aspects of the problem which make further research desirable.

First, an instrument intended for the measurement of developmental variables such as vocational maturity must yield scores which either increase or decrease with age (Crites, 1965). The Attitude Inventory developed by Crites (1965) is perhaps the only instrument which has been demonstrated empirically to be correlated with chronological age.

Second, interview approaches to measuring vocational maturity have distinct disadvantages which limit their usefulness and applicability. Collecting the data is time-consuming and scoring requires a great deal of time from highly qualified personnel (Super, 1968b). Tests and inventories appear to be more appropriate for measuring the cognitive and affective aspects of vocational maturity because they are more objective, more economical, can be administered to large samples, and yield more precise measurements (Crites, 1965).

Third, measures exist for only a few of the vocational maturity variables which have been hypothesized (Crites, 1965). The absence of such measures has restricted research activity in this area. Apparently, a standardized measure is available for only one of the four dimensions in Crites' (1965) model of vocational maturity. Measures are needed for each of the other dimensions to test the validity of the model.

Fourth, the inventory which has been constructed to measure vocational choice attitudes (Crites, 1965) does not yield separate scores for each of the five variables it purports to measure. As mentioned above, an instrument which yields scores on each variable for each dimension would permit the testing of various hypotheses regarding the patterns of interrelationships, and eventually it should be possible to graph an individual's vocational maturity on a profile sheet (Super, 1955).

Fifth, the exercise being prepared by the NAEP will not yield scores on the various vocational maturity variables. Data are reported only for a particular test item.

The Vocational Maturity Project

The need for further research along the lines suggested above has prompted us to undertake the development and validation of a set of vocational measures. The completed battery will contain objective items designed to measure the various vocational maturity behaviors hypothesized by Crites. These items will be based on behavioral statements derived from the work of Super, et al. (1967) and Gribbons and Lohnes (1968); the items will be grouped according to the variables they are designed to measure. Thus, each group of items will yield a score on one of the variables in the Crites model.

An attempt will be made to establish the empirical validity of the variables. Tests will be administered to random samples of students at

various grade levels to determine if mean scores on each test increase with the grade level of students. Discovery of a strong positive correlation between test scores and grade level would tend to support the claim that the vocational maturity variables are developmental behaviors. In addition, indicators of vocational decision-making ability should be related to the several scores produced by vocational maturity measures (Dilley, 1963). It might be particularly valuable to determine whether performance on such games as "Aim," proposed by Gordon (1968), and "Life Career," developed by Boocock (1968), are related to the vocational maturity measures.

Several questions are raised each time the concept of vocational maturity is discussed with psychologists, counselors, and teachers (Super, 1968b). To what extent are vocational maturity behaviors influenced by education? To what extent are they biologically controlled? To what extent is vocational maturity related to career adjustment? The construction of valid measures of vocational maturity will make it possible to study problems such as these, and perhaps the information from vocational maturity measures will enable guidance counselors to give more relevant information to pupils who, at a very early age, must make vital pre-career decisions (Gribbons & Lohnes, 1968).

Problems in Validating the Construct of Vocational Maturity

Several problems arise when one considers designing studies to validate the construct of vocational maturity. One general problem deals with choosing and defining the specific variables which will be regarded as representing the construct of vocational maturity. Another deals with choosing the data collection method which will yield reliable data on the vocational maturity variables. A final problem pertains to the item analysis procedures to be used in producing theoretically and empirically valid measures of vocational maturity.

Vocational Maturity Variables

The selection and definition of the proper set of vocational maturity variables is fundamental to the validation of the vocational maturity syndrome. If one wishes to develop instruments intended for the measurement of the construct of vocational maturity, he must consider not only what variables are to be included, but also how the variables can be unambiguously defined for purposes of item construction. The problem of variable selection and definition arises because of the fact that a well-defined taxonomy of the construct of vocational maturity does not exist. In fact, even though vocational maturity was introduced more than fifteen years ago, researchers are still searching for its rubrics. The preliminary work of the Career Pattern Study (Super and Overstreet, 1960) suggested the five dimensions and twenty indices of vocational maturity shown in Table 1. However, on the basis of data collected on a sample of ninth-grade boys, Super and Overstreet concluded that only six of the twenty indices "had sufficient number of statistically significant positive intercorrelations to be considered adequate as measures of vocational maturity at the ninth-grade level" (Super and Overstreet, 1960). The

TABLE 1

Dimension	I.	Orientation to Vocational Choice
		a. Concern with choice
		b. Use of resources in orientation
Dimension	II.	Information and Planning About the Preferred Occupation
		a. Specificity of information about the preferred occupation
		b. Specificity of planning for the preferred occupation
		c. Extent of planning activity
Dimension	III.	Consistency of Vocational Preferences
		a. Consistency of vocational preferences within fields
		b. Consistency of vocational preferences within levels
		c. Consistency of vocational preferences within families
Dimension	IV.	Crystallization of Traits
		a. Degree of patterning of measured interests
		b. Interest maturity
		c. Liking for work
		d. Degree of patterning of work values
		e. Extent of discussion of rewards of work
		f. Acceptance of responsibility for choice & planning
		g. Vocational independence
Dimension	V.	Wisdom of Vocational Preferences
		a. Agreement between ability and preference
		b. Agreement between measured interests and preference
		c. Agreement between measured interests and fantasy preference
		d. Agreement between occupational level of measured interests and level of preference
		e. Socioeconomic accessibility of preference

following indices were considered adequate measures of vocational maturity: (1) Concern with Choice, (2) Acceptance of Responsibility for Choice and Planning, (3) Specificity of Planning for the Preferred Occupation, (5) Extent of Planning Activity, and (6) Use of Resources in Orientation.

In a later publication Super (1963) suggested that vocational maturity in the crystallization stage consists of the following eleven attitudes and behaviors: (1) Awareness of the need to crystallize, (2) Use of resources, (3) Awareness of factors to consider, (4) Awareness of contingencies which may affect goals, (5) Differentiation of interests and values, (6) Awareness of present-future relationships, (7) Formulation of a generalized preference, (8) Consistency of preference, (9) Possession of information concerning the preferred occupation, (10) Planning for the preferred occupation, and (11) Wisdom of the vocational preference. Some notable differences exist between the concept of vocational maturity suggested in the 1960 monograph (Super & Overstreet, 1960) and the new formulation which Super presented in 1963 (Super, et al., 1963). In the new formulation, indices are not grouped

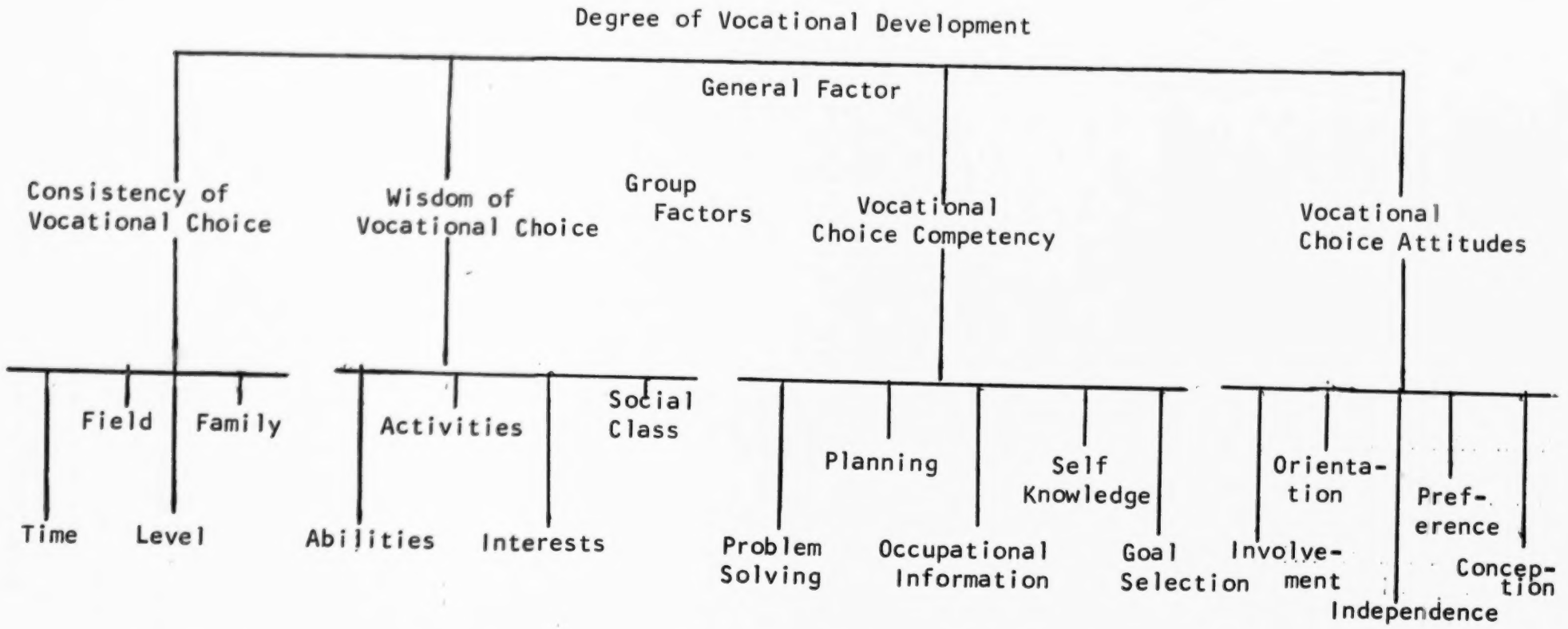
under dimensions of vocational maturity as they originally were conceptualized; they are simply listed as eleven "behavior-continua and facilitating attitudes and attributes" (Super, et al., 1963). Instead of settling with the twenty indices which were originally tried out in the Career Pattern Study or adopting the six indices which were considered to be empirically valid, Super's newer formulation proposes eleven indices, some of which were not statistically valid vocational maturity indices in the ninth grade. Super provides suggestive rather than exhaustive or conclusive definitions of the eleven indices. The researcher attempting to construct measures of vocational maturity must define the variables more explicitly than Super has if he wishes to write items to measure the various indices.

In an attempt to organize the various hypothesized indices of vocational maturity, Crites (1965) suggested that the diagram shown in Figure 2 might represent a model of the construct of vocational maturity as derived from theories of vocational development. The variables and dimensions included in the Crites model are similar to those suggested by Super and Overstreet (1960) in the Career Pattern Study. However, Crites has elaborated upon their formulation by proposing that the "orientation to vocational choice," "information and planning," and certain aspects of the "crystallization of traits" dimensions can be further analyzed into several different kinds of choice "competency" and "attitudes." Choice competency refers to cognitive processes such as vocational problem-solving, planning, occupational information, self-knowledge, and good selection. Choice attitudes are considered to fall within the affective domain; they include involvement in the choice process, orientation toward work, independence in decision making, preference for choice factors, and conceptions of the choice process. These choice competence and attitudes, together with the "consistency of vocational choice" and "wisdom of vocational choice" dimensions, are considered by Crites (1965) to represent the construct of vocational maturity as depicted in Figure 2. The model represents a refinement of the organization and classification of vocational maturity variables, and it serves as a useful guide for studying the relationships between variables and dimensions. Nevertheless, the researcher who attempts to test the model must formulate conceptually adequate definitions before embarking upon the task of writing items to measure the variables incorporated in the model.

Method of Data Collection

A second major problem in validating the construct of vocational maturity is the choice of the method of data collection. At least three different data-collection methods have been used in previous attempts to validate the construct of vocational maturity: the partially structured interview, the structured interview, and fixed-alternative questions. The advantages and disadvantages of each of these are discussed later.

The partically structured interview was used in Super's Career Pattern Study, a twenty-year longitudinal investigation of the vocational development of a sample of males between the ages of 15 and 35 (Super, et al., 1957). In the partially structured interview, neither the exact questions the interviewer asks nor the responses the person is permitted



156

Figure 2. The Construct of vocational maturity as derived from theories of vocational development. (This figure was taken from: Crites, J.O. Measurement of vocational maturity in adolescence: I attitude test of the vocational development inventory, Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, 1965,79, 1-36).

149

to make are predetermined. The structure is very broad at first, consisting only of setting general topics which are narrowed with the use of primer questions as the interview proceeds. Such interviews enable the investigator to study intensively the vocational maturity variables under consideration. Furthermore, the flexibility of this type of interview makes it possible to elicit responses in greater depth than is permitted with standardized tests and inventories. The partially structured interview can be a useful source of hypotheses that can later be submitted to a systematic test; however, they have a major disadvantage in that frequently the results are not comparable from interview to interview. In addition, the complexity of analysis usually makes them less efficient than structured interviews.

Structured interviews were used in the Career Development Study (Gribbons & Lohnes, 1968) to measure Readiness for Vocational Planning. Although the structured interview does not suggest any structure for the respondent's reply, both the questions and the order in which they are presented are predetermined. Since all respondents are replying to the same set of questions, the responses obtained from one interview to another are comparable. Nevertheless, the unstructured responses are difficult and expensive to analyze since scoring manuals must be constructed, coders must be trained, and responses must be scored before they can be tabulated and statistically analyzed. Compared to the simple process of scoring fixed-alternative questions, the analysis of open-ended questions is quite complex and often troublesome.

The fixed-alternative procedure was used by Crites (1965) in constructing the Vocational Development Inventory Attitudes test. Since the responses of the subject are limited to stated alternatives, the questions are not only simple to administer but also quick and relatively inexpensive to analyze. Inasmuch as the fixed-alternative procedure eliminates error variance attributable to scorer differences in evaluating responses, reliability estimates are likely to be higher than those obtained from structured or partially structured interview guides.

Analysis of Item Data

A third major problem in validating the construct of vocational maturity deals with the treatment and evaluation of item analysis data. The problem is fundamentally theoretical and methodological. Two aspects of the problem must be taken into account: the method of grouping items and the method of selecting the items.

The method of grouping items is a major consideration in developing measures of each of the vocational maturity variables. Inasmuch as Crites' model of vocational maturity includes eighteen variables for which items can be constructed, it is important to be able to demonstrate that the items are theoretically and empirically valid measures of the variable under which they are grouped. The item construction method employed by Crites (1965) in developing the Attitude test appears to be a sound approach because it is based upon the rational model for writing items proposed by Flanagan (1951). The advantage of the Flanagan model is that it produces a set of items closely related to the theory on which the instrument is based, However, if items are constructed to measure the different vocational maturity

variables suggested in the Crites (1965) model of vocational maturity, grouping items only in terms of some theory may not produce instruments which have desirable properties as measuring devices. Additional procedures must be used to insure that the items belong together in a statistical sense. To validate the grouping of items, homogeneous grouping techniques can be applied to the item scores. In this manner it is possible to determine whether the theoretical sorting of items into groups results in groups of times which are highly inter-related statistically.

The method of item selection is crucial in the development of measures which are used to test hypotheses regarding the theoretical structure of vocational maturity. The problem is simply this: possession of item analysis data provides the investigator with information which bears directly, through a chain of fixed activities, on the ultimate outcome of testing the hypothesis about the structure of the vocational maturity model. How the analyses are used can finally shape the result of testing the hypothesis. An example will clarify the problem. It is claimed that vocational maturity is developmental; therefore, scores attained on vocational maturity measures should increase across grade levels. To test this hypothesis Crites (1965) constructed the Attitude test as a part of the Vocational Development Inventory and administered it to pupils in grades five through twelve. However, by accepting for inclusion in his instrument only those items which "were monotonically associated with age and grade, Crites was able to conclude that scores on the Attitude test are "monotonically related to both age and grade," and "that there was an increase in vocational maturity at all grade levels except the eleventh grade, which was atypical" (Crites, 1965). Obviously, the item analysis data provided Crites with the opportunity to select items which would determine whether the hypothesis would eventually be accepted or rejected. Perhaps test constructors should extricate themselves by deliberately not making certain kinds of decisions which are ordinarily made in test construction. For example, items should probably not be selected for inclusion in the subtests on the basis of preconceptions about the desirable level of item difficulties, standard deviation, or mean difficulties. Ideally, it would seem appropriate to adopt this working principle: if an item correlates positively with its subtest score and if it is free from technical deficiencies, then it should be included in the test.

Validation by Internal Evidence

This section deals with the validation of the construct of vocational maturity by means of evidence generated by measures built according to the model proposed by Crites (shown in Figure 2). For the sake of discussion, it will be taken for granted that measures are available for each of the eighteen variables depicted in the model. On the basis of the assumed multidimensional characteristics of the construct of vocational maturity, one might cast several hypotheses about relationships among the eighteen variables and four dimensions.

First, for any given variable, performance on it should be more highly related to performance on variables grouped under the same dimension than to variables subsumed under other dimensions; e.g., Problem Solving should relate more highly with Planning, Occupational Information, Self-Knowledge,

and Goal Selection than with Involvement, Orientation, Independence, Preferance, and Conception. This relationship is implied by the model. If Problem Solving is regarded as a contributor to the Vocational Choice Competency dimension, then it should have more in common with other variables contributing to that dimension than with variables that are contributing to the measurement of other dimensions of vocational maturity.

Second, the hypothesis might deal with the factor pattern derived from a matrix of the intercorrelation of the eighteen vocational maturity variables. The factor pattern should consist of a general vocational maturity factor and four group factors. The pattern of hypothetical loadings is shown in Table 2.

Validation by External Evidence

The validation of vocational maturity measures by relating them to external criteria is an endless task, inasmuch as scores from them could be related to almost an infinite set of criterion measures. However, there are several such studies which might shed some light on vocational maturity.

First, vocational maturity measures should be administered to random samples of students at various grade levels to determine if mean scores on each variable increases concomitantly with grade level of students. Discovery of a strong positive association would tend to support the claim that the vocational maturity behaviors are developmental behaviors. Of course, discovery of the relationship would in no sense constitute a final judgment on that point; however, when coupled with other evidence, it should strengthen arguments about the construct validity of vocational maturity.

Second, other measures of vocational maturity might be related to the several scores produced by vocational maturity measures based on Crites' (1965) model. It might be particularly valuable to determine the extent to which each of the vocational maturity measures are related to the Readiness for Vocational Planning Scales used in the Career Development Study (Gribbons & Lohnes, 1968) and the Vocational Maturity Indices employed in the Career Pattern Study (Super, 1960). The information derived from these analyses would be valuable in identifying the elements which are common to the various measures of vocational maturity.

Third, many more studies could be executed that would test specific hypotheses bearing on the construct validity of vocational maturity. Studies relating vocational decision-making ability scores to vocational maturity scores might be conducted to determine whether the relationship between decision-making ability and vocational maturity measures is substantially greater for Vocational Choice Competency than for Vocational Choice Attitudes. In addition, it might be worthwhile to determine whether performance on such games as "Aim," proposed by Gordon (1968) and "Life Career," developed by Boocock (1968) is related to the various vocational maturity measures. None of these studies would yield conclusive evidence about the validity of the construct of vocational maturity but they would add to the existing evidence which is slight at this time.

TABLE 2

HYPOTHESIZED FACTOR PATTERN

Variables	F_1	F_2	F_3	F_4	F_5
Time	x				
Field	x	x			
Level	x	x			
Family	x	x			
Ability	x		x		
Activities	x		x		
Interests	x		x		
Social Class	x		x		
Problem Solving	x			x	
Planning	x			x	
Occupational Information	x			x	
Self Knowledge	x			x	
Goal Selection	x			x	
Involvement	x				x
Orientation	x				x
Independence	x				x
Preference	x				x
Conception	x				x

Vocational Maturity and Vocational Adjustment

Tyler (1961b) has observed that the difficulty which some individuals experience when they are confronted with the necessity of declaring an occupational goal or making subordinate decisions which will lead to a goal often stems from their vocational immaturity. She writes: "Choices come in sequences, and a person may find it impossible to make a later one if he has not settled the earlier ones" (Tyler, 1961b). As Havighurst (1953) has pointed out (see Chapter 5, p. 33), success with earlier developmental tasks is related to success with later ones. Dysinger (1950) has also commented upon indecision in vocational choice and has emphasized that: "There are periods of indecision, even indifference, which run through the whole developmental process. Long periods of time may intervene between steps toward vocational maturity."

As noted earlier, measures are taken on each individual to answer the questions raised at different stages in vocational development. The first question deals with whether an individual is ready to enter job training. To a great extent this is a question of whether the pupil is having vocational choice problems. Interest inventories and aptitude tests can help us determine the type of vocational choice problem.

Although several systems for identifying vocational choice problems have been introduced, most of them are inadequate because they are not based on explicit definitial criteria. Crites (1969) has proposed a new system which enables one to determine whether the individual is having a

problem of adjustment, problem of indecision, or a problem of unrealism. Although his system will identify the type of problem, measures of vocational maturity are needed to determine why the individual is having a problem and where remedial assistance is needed.

In summary, vocational maturity behaviors include those aspects of development which may help us understand why an individual is having vocational choice problems and vocational adjustment problems. Since measures are not yet available for all of these variables, their assessment will probably be limited for some time to come. They deserve to be studied, and more intensely, so their role in vocational development can be firmly established. In the meantime, measures which are available should be used for research purposes, particularly with the rural disadvantaged, to further our knowledge and understanding of vocational maturity and to provide us with information which can be used to facilitate the career and occupational development of all pupils.

REFERENCES

Boocock, S. S. Life career game. Designed by Academic Games Associates, Center for Study of Social Organization of Schools, Baltimore: John Hopkins University, 1968.

Carter, H. D. The development of vocational attitudes. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1940, 4, 185-191.

Crites, J. O. Proposals for a new criterion measure and improved research design. In H. Borow (Ed.), Man in a world of work. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1964, pp. 324-340.

Crites, J. O. Measurement of vocational maturity in adolescence: I attitude test of vocational development inventory, Psychological Monographs, 1965, (No. 595).

Crites, J. O. Vocational psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969.

Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA. National Assessment of Educational Progress. Washington, D. C., 1967,(No. 181-05532.)

Dilley, J. S. Correlates of "rational" decision making among high school seniors, (Doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota) Minneapolis, Minnesota: University Microfilms, 1963, No. 64-7236.

Dvorak, B. J. The new USES general aptitude test battery. Occupations, 1947, 26, 42-44.

Dysinger, W. S. Maturation and vocational guidance. Occupations, 1950, 29, 198-201.

Edington, E. D. Disadvantaged rural youth. Review of Educational Research, 1970, 40 (1), 69-85.

Flanagan, J. C. The use of comprehensive rationales in test development. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1951, 11, 151-155.

Ginzberg, E., Ginsburg, S. W., Axelrod, S., & Herma, J. L. Occupational choice. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951.

Gordon, A. K. Educational games extension service, units one through eight. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1968.

Gribbons, W. D., & Lohnes, P. R. Emerging careers. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1968.

Havighurst, R. J. Human development and education. New York: Longmans, Green, 1953.

Parsons, F. Choosing a vocation. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1909.

Paterson, D. G., and Darley, J. F. Men, women, and jobs. Minneapolis: University Minnesota Press, 1936.

Robinson, J. P., Athanasiou, R., & Head, K. B. Measures of occupational characteristics. Science Research Center, Institute of Social Research, The University of Michigan, 1969.

Strong, E. K., Jr. Vocational interests of men and women. Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 1943.

Strong, E. K. Jr. Vocational interests 18 years after college. Minneapolis: University Minnesota Press, 1955.

Super, D. E. A theory of vocational development, American Psychologist, 1953, 8, 185-190.

Super, D. E. The dimensions and measurement of vocational maturity. Teachers College Record, 1955, 57, 151-163.

Super, D. E. and Bachrach, P. B. Scientific careers and vocational development theory. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1957.

Super, D. E., Crites, J. O., Hummel, R. C., Moser, H. P., Overstreet, P. L., & Warnath, C. F. Vocational development: A framework for research. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1957.

Super, D. E. & Overstreet, P. L. The vocational maturity of ninth grade boys. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1960.

Super, D. E., Starishevsky, R., Matlin, N., & Jordaan, J.P. Career Development: Self-concept theory. Teachers College, Columbia University, College Entrance Examination Board, New York, 1963, No. 4.

Super, D. E., Kowalski, R. S., & Gotkin, E. H. Floundering and trial after high school. Career Pattern Study: Monograph IV, 1967, Teachers College, Columbia University, Cooperative Research Project No. 1393, Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Super, D. E. Vocational development theory in 1988: How will it come about? Symposium presented at the meeting on Vocational Development Theory, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, July 1968 (b).

Tyler, L. E. The work of the counselor. (2nd ed.) New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961(a).

Williamson, E. G. How to counsel students. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1939.

APPENDIX A

INTEREST INVENTORIES

Among the interest inventories currently in use are the following:

California Occupational Preference Survey: Robert R. Knapp, Bruce Grant and George D. Demos; EITS

One hundred sixty-eight relatively transparent items to be checked on a 4-point scale to indicate strength of liking or disliking. Items are clustered into scales such as Science--skilled, Aesthetic--professional, etc. Split-half reliabilities are high but there is no evidence on stability or validity at present.

Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory: Kenneth E. Clark with David P. Campbell; Psychological Corporation

For high school students and adults. Forced-choice triads are scored by weights developed according to Strong's procedure, to indicate how closely one's interests resemble those of men in trades such as baker, plasterer, retail sales clerk, and milk wagon driver. A second set of scales is based on homogeneous clusters (e.g., office work, outdoors, food service). Covers a portion of the occupational range for which SVIB is inadequate.

Occupational Interest Survey, Form DD; G. Frederic Kuder; SRA.

100 forced-choice items keyed for various occupations and college majors on the commonality principle. A new and promising empirical instrument.

Preference Record, Vocational, Form C and General Interest Survey, Form E; Frederic Kuder; SRA

For grades 7 upward. Ten scores show percentile standing in various interest categories. Form E is the more recent; it has 168 forced-choice items and administration requires nearly an hour.

Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women: E. K. Strong, Jr., David P. Campbell and others; Stanford.

A 1969 publication. Emphasis is on professional and skilled occupations. The original women's blank proved to have less predictive validity than the men's blank, perhaps because women are less able to choose careers that particularly interest them. Follow-up studies on the new blank will be needed to determine whether it functions better than the old one.

Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Men; E. K. Strong, Jr., David P. Campbell, and others; Stanford.

For high school students and adults.

APPENDIX B — APTITUDE TESTS

Differential Aptitude Test

For use with grades 8-13 and adults.
Provides scores for verbal, abstract, and mechanical reasoning, numerical ability, space relation, clerical speed and accuracy, language usage, and a total score for scholastic ability.

Psychological Corporation

General Aptitude Test Battery

For use with grades 9-12 and adults.
Provides scores for verbal, numerical, and spacial ability, intelligence, form perception, clerical perception, finger dexterity, and manual dexterity.

U. S. Department of Labor

Academic Promise Tests

For use with grades 7-8.
Provides a measure somewhat similar to the DAT.

Psychological Corporation

Flanagan Aptitude Classification Tests

For use with high school seniors.
Total battery has 21 tests and requires 7 hours to administer.

Science Research Associates

Tests of Primary Mental Abilities

Five level test covering the range kindergarten-high school
The scores in the battery are not independent.

Science Research Associates

APPENDIX C — ACHIEVEMENT MEASURES

CLERICAL TESTS, SERIES V (Applicants for typing and stenographic positions) Thurow & Associates, Inc.
BOOKKEEPING: MINNESOTA HIGH SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT EXAMINATIONS (high school) American Guidance Service, Inc.
APT DICTATION TEST (Stenographers) Associated Personnel Tech., Inc.
McCANN TYPING TESTS (Applicants to typing positions) McCann Associates
ENGINEERING AIDE TEST (Engineering aides) Public Personnel Association
FIREFIGHTER TEST (Prospective firemen) Public Personnel Association
NCR TEST BATTERY FOR PROSPECTIVE CHECKOUT CASHIERS (Prospective check-stand operators) National Cash Register Company
POLICEMAN EXAMINATION (Prospective policeman) McCann Associates
NLN ACHIEVEMENT TESTS FOR PSYCHIATRIC AIDES (Hospital psychiatric aides and attendants) National League for Nursing, Inc.

VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR POTENTIAL SCHOOL DROPOUTS

Gene Bottoms *

Introduction

The intent of this institute is to focus on:

A. the needs of the rural disadvantaged;
B. problems involved in providing necessary occupational education to increase their social mobility potential;
C. how occupational education can be provided so as to result in increasing social mobility for rural disadvantaged; and
D. assessment criteria and procedure to determine if the program has been successful.

It is my intent to describe a program in Georgia that has been somewhat successful in dealing with the rural disadvantaged at the secondary level. In describing this program I will address myself to three of the four major intents of this Institute by considering the following three topics:

1. Major problems involved in serving disadvantaged rural youth;
2. Procedures used in attempting to overcome major problems involved in serving disadvantaged rural youth; and
3. Review of the preliminary results for serving disadvantaged youth.

Topic I

Major Problems Involved in Serving Disadvantaged Rural Youth

Countless reasons can be given to explain why schools have failed to prepare disadvantaged youth for their next step. For the sake of perspective, let us review briefly some of the major problems that must be overcome if successful vocational programs are to be devised and implemented for the disadvantaged.

1. One of the major problems deterring disadvantaged youth from learning is the fact that they do not fit the model of what educators consider to be an "ideal student." That is, they do not look like the middle class image of the ideal student that is held by most teachers, due to differences in quality and style of dress, personal hygiene, and health problems. Neither do they act like them, due to their differences in learning styles, motivation, and views of adults. Thus, the teachers' unfavorable images and expectations work against disadvantaged students' receiving the respect and encouragement.that they so desperately need

---

* Dr. Bottoms is Associate State Director, Division of Vocational Education, Georgia State Department of Education.

in order to obtain a sense of worthiness. This view is not limited to just the academic teacher.

2. The fatalist's view of many educators, that disadvantaged students cannot learn because of who they are, what they are, where they live, and who their parents are, has served as a dominant factor in preventing us from taking an aggressive and positive approach to the education of the disadvantaged. The school tends to operate under the assumption that the disadvantaged is what he is because of who he is. One has to wonder what has happened to the idea that if the students are not learning, look at the school. Even in vocational education, considerable emphasis has been placed on "selecting for success" rather than "teaching for success." Research has shown that if you do not expect much from students, they do not do much.

3. The establishment of an educational environment that overlooks and underestimates disadvantaged students' assets and desires has limited our success with disadvantaged students. Too often the approach used in attempting to make education relevant for the disadvantaged has been one of lowering expectations, watering down the curriculum, and slowing down the rate of learning activities. Instead, disadvantaged students need an educational environment that:

(a) sets different standards not lower standards;
(b) provides them with a curriculum that they perceive as useful to them in solving immediate and longer-range problems rather than a watered down curriculum with its focus on learning for the sake of learning; and
(c) provides them with learning activities that enable them to learn abstract concepts, to appreciate abstract formulations, and to develop abstract thought processes through a process in which they are first given an opportunity to make application of a concept in the solving of a physical problem, and second, they are given an opportunity to reflect upon this experience rather than an approach in which they are expected to master a concept through a purely symbolic approach. Vocational educators have often overlooked the positive assets of disadvantaged as indicated by their frequent insistence that they cannot teach them unless they first have the basic academic skills. Yet, the simple fact that academic and vocational education could be combined into an educational program to fit the desires and intellectual style of many disadvantaged too often has been ignored.

4. Limited resources have been a major deterrent in providing vocational education to rural disadvantaged youth. There are two ways in which limited resources can be viewed. One way has to do with the commitment, knowledge, and imagination of local decision makers and implementers of the educational program.

Those who possess adequate knowledge of comprehensive vocational programs and disadvantaged students, and who can convert this into a workable program design are not available to all systems. In many instances, commitment to a type of education that prepares every student equally well for his next step has been something that has more often been discussed

than fulfilled.

The other way in which limited resources can be viewed has to do with the fact that rural disadvantaged youth do not have access to a comprehensive vocational program. Vocational education in most rural schools has been limited to agriculture and home economics. These two fields should be commended for the job that they have done; however, rural youth need access to a broader range of vocational education opportunities.

Limited resources also extend to other areas of the school. In fact, most rural schools have more students per counselor than do urban schools. The limited number of job training stations within the community has limited the development of traditional cooperative programs. These combinations of factors mean that many rural disadvantaged must leave their community for employment in an environment of which they are ignorant and for which they have not been prepared.

5. The occupational illiteracy and lack of employability skills of rural disadvantaged youth is a major deterrent to social mobility. Their limited knowledge about available education and career opportunities and how one can take advantage of these, in part, accounts for their low level of aspiration. One can no more choose something he knows nothing about than he can return from some place where he has never been.

Eggeman, Campbell, and Garbin (1969) in a national survey indicate that the major problems of disadvantaged in making a successful transition from school to work centers around (1) inadequate training and job skills, (2) lack of information about work and training opportunities, (3) lack of job-seeking skills, and (4) lack of employability skills such as responsibility, work habits, confidence, superior relationships, work expectations, and work attitudes.

6. If one accepts Maslow's concept of a hierarchy of needs, he must realize that many disadvantaged rural youth have difficulty in seeking the higher order needs of achievement, recognition, mastery, and competence, all of which are essential in acquiring occupational skills, until their more immediate physiological needs of safety, love, affection, and belonging are met. The motivation to fulfill basic needs results in many disadvantaged youth being unable to set the long-term goals required to enter most post-secondary vocational programs.

7. The structure of the school has been a major factor in preventing disadvantaged youth from acquiring an education. Curriculums have been designed so that there is greater focus on subject matter content than on the student. Vocational education has been guilty of establishing artificial rules, such as requiring that youth be in the eleventh grade before they could enroll, despite the fact that most disadvantaged youth have left school prior to the eleventh grade. The focus of most post-secondary vocational programs has been on enrolling students in one- and two-year terminal programs which often are not appropriate for the disadvantaged. In the comprehensive school setting, the attitude has often been that disadvantaged youth need only vocational education and could not benefit from academic education.

8. The disadvantaged youth are not a part of the friendship cliques and clubs within the school. This is another way in which disadvantaged students are made to feel that they do not belong in school.

9. The accumulation of the above factors results in a school climate in which the rural disadvantaged youth have been doomed to failure. After many trials to successfully meet standards set by the school, their aspirations regarding educational achievement have been severely lowered to the point where many are just passing time until they can leave school. Rather than risk continued failure, many have just given up. The initial problem we must face then in developing programs for the rural disadvantaged will be to help them overcome the failure syndrome they have acquired toward education.

Topic II

Procedures Used in Attempting to Overcome Major Problems Involved in Serving Disadvantaged Rural Youth

Operational Principles -- In order to overcome problems identified in serving disadvantaged youth, a number of basic principles essential to an eventual program design were enumerated.

1. Due to limited financial and leadership resources, the decision was made to devise a fairly fixed program design in terms of intent, nature, and operation, that local systems could implement through state financial assistance for one year with procedures built in to insure continuous improvement and change. It was reasoned that the state could draw together greater resources than could any single school system, both in the inception of a program and in providing supportive services such as curriculum materials, teacher education, and evaluation, for implementation.

2. In order to create a positive school climate for disadvantaged youth, it was felt that the program design must provide for a total school approach as opposed to a vocational education approach. Just to force disadvantaged youth into a vocational program while the rest of the school remained the same could further add to the student's sense of unworthiness. It was further reasoned that basic changes in the school program for the disadvantaged would have a better chance of breaking through the traditionalism of the school if a team of teachers were involved.

3. To overcome the failure syndrome of the disadvantaged, the program design was structured to provide for immediate and frequent success experiences which are perceived by the student as being meaningful and not artificial.

4. The disadvantaged youth's lack of coping behavior in both the school and work setting made it necessary that the program design include both a job adjustment and a school adjustment focus.

5. To serve disadvantaged youth before they leave school and enable them to perceive meaningful avenues through the junior high and secondary school to an identifiable next step, the program design was developmental and extended as low as the seventh grade level. At the junior high level the focus was on exploration and employability skill development, while at

the secondary level the focus included a more direct focus on job preparation.

6. Disadvantaged youth should have an opportunity to feel themselves a part of the school through participation with peers in an organized youth activity. Any program should provide a formal structure for disadvantaged youth to be participating members of a school organization.

7. In order to overcome the "traditionalism" of school, the program design provided for the involvement of the principal and his staff in the initial decision regarding whether or not they wanted the program and also in working through its implementation in their school. It was imperative that the local school principal and staff come to perceive the program as being their own rather than a program belonging to the State Department of Education.

8. To maximize the limited vocational resources in rural schools the program design provided for coordination among the existing vocational programs and for coordination between school and community resources in extending their use. The implementation procedure included strategies for replacing stereotyped beliefs held by teachers that disadvantaged students cannot learn and are unworthy. Providing teachers with an opportunity to learn more about the positive attributes of disadvantaged and to plan ways in which the school could build on these served as one means of changing attitudes. Emphasizing the major themes that "schools fail students" and "success motivates" served to sharpen the major thrust of the program.

9. The program design attempted to provide learning experiences that the disadvantaged youth perceived as being useful and practical to him now and in the immediate future by focusing on preparing for a job, obtaining a job, and on solving present problems. Also, experiences were designed to help the disadvantaged make a gradual shift from a present orientation to a future orientation.

Program Description -- An attempt was been made to implement the basic principles enumerated into the program referred to as the Cooperative Vocational and Academic Education (CVAE). The program design provides for placing identified students either in the home economics, industrial arts, or the agriculture lab for one hour per day and in a work training station for a portion of the day. It also is designed to interlock the learning experiences in math, communication skills, and science classes with those of the vocational laboratory and work setting. The interlocking of the experiences of the work setting and of the laboratory with the academic course is accomplished by identifying the tasks that the student will be required to perform and then identifying the academic concepts and understandings that must be applied in order to perform the task.

Through a process of weekly coordination, the team of academic and vocational teachers can organize their curriculum so that there is an integration of school learning around the concrete experiences of the vocational laboratory and work setting. Such an approach requires a modification in the school curriculum structure from a narrow vertical

design where the focus is on the subject matter content to a horizontal design where the focus is on making the total school experience meaningful to the student at a given point in time. The contrast is illustrated in Chart I.

The program design is developmental. At the junior high school level the program was designed to provide most students with an opportunity to utilize the concrete experiences of the vocational laboratory and work setting as a vehicle for acquiring academic skills, achieving career development objectives, acquiring employability skills, and moving students into one of several vocational options at the senior high level. At the junior high level the student may rotate through a number of work settings.

At the secondary level the objective is to develop specific job skills and to continue to use the concrete experiences of both the vocational laboratory and work setting as a means for teaching academic skills.

The learning activities in the laboratory were designed so that within the first five hours students would complete a project. In the beginning, special efforts were taken to insure immediate and frequent success. The time frames are gradually lengthened with each activity.

To provide overall supervision and direction to the program, a coordinator is employed whose title is "Education and Work Experience Coordinator." His responsibilities include: (a) serving as a team leader in coordinating the academic phase with the vocational laboratory and work setting; (b) coordinating the laboratory phase with the work experience or work training phase; (c) placing and supervising students in part-time work either within or outside the school, depending on the student's grade level, age, and readiness for employment to insure that a positive work environment is established; (d) conducting related classes for students with immediate reinforcement of desired behaviors and further assisting them to understand themselves better and the requirements of the work and educational setting, in order that they might modify their behavior accordingly; and (e) organizing and conducting a youth club for students enrolled in the program.

Implementing the CVAE Program -- In obtaining initial local involvement the decision was made to allow systems to apply for coooperative programs (CVAE) through their local plans for vocational education and that the state would provide the system with a plus allotted teacher to serve as the coordinator for the first year. In deciding which systems would receive the program, four major criteria were used: (a) agreement on the part of the system to continue the program after the initial year; (b) the school dropout rate; (c) the availability of at least two vocational and prevocational labs; and (d) the availability of work stations either within or outside the school.

After systems had been selected, a one-day statewide meeting was held in the spring to which superintendents, curriculum directors, and school principals were invited. It was the purpose of this meeting to explain the program in depth and to allow the system to make a final decision regarding the program.

Chart 2.

DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING FOR THE PURPOSE OF INTERLOCKING ACADEMIC AND VOCATIONAL CURRICULUM

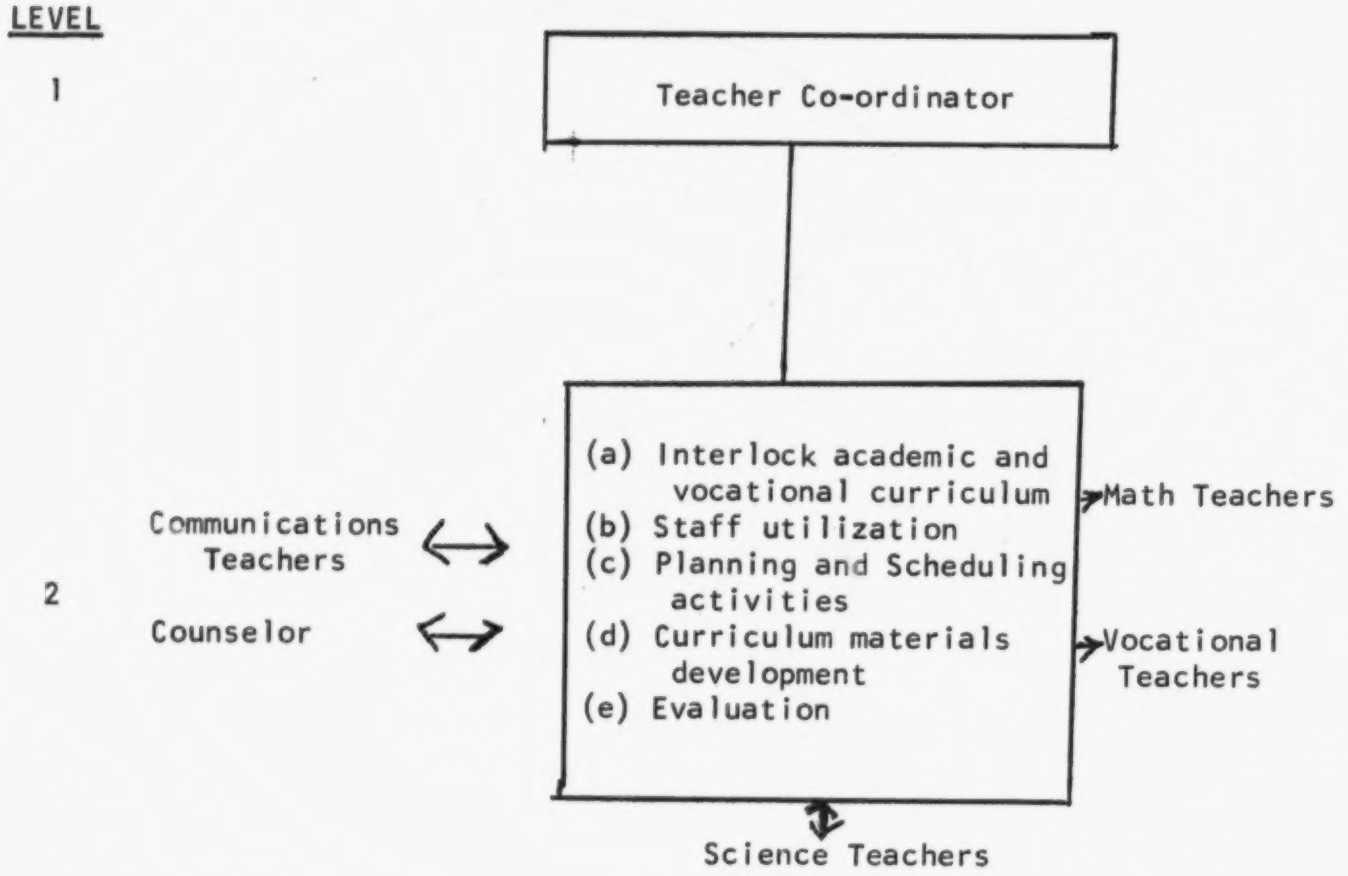
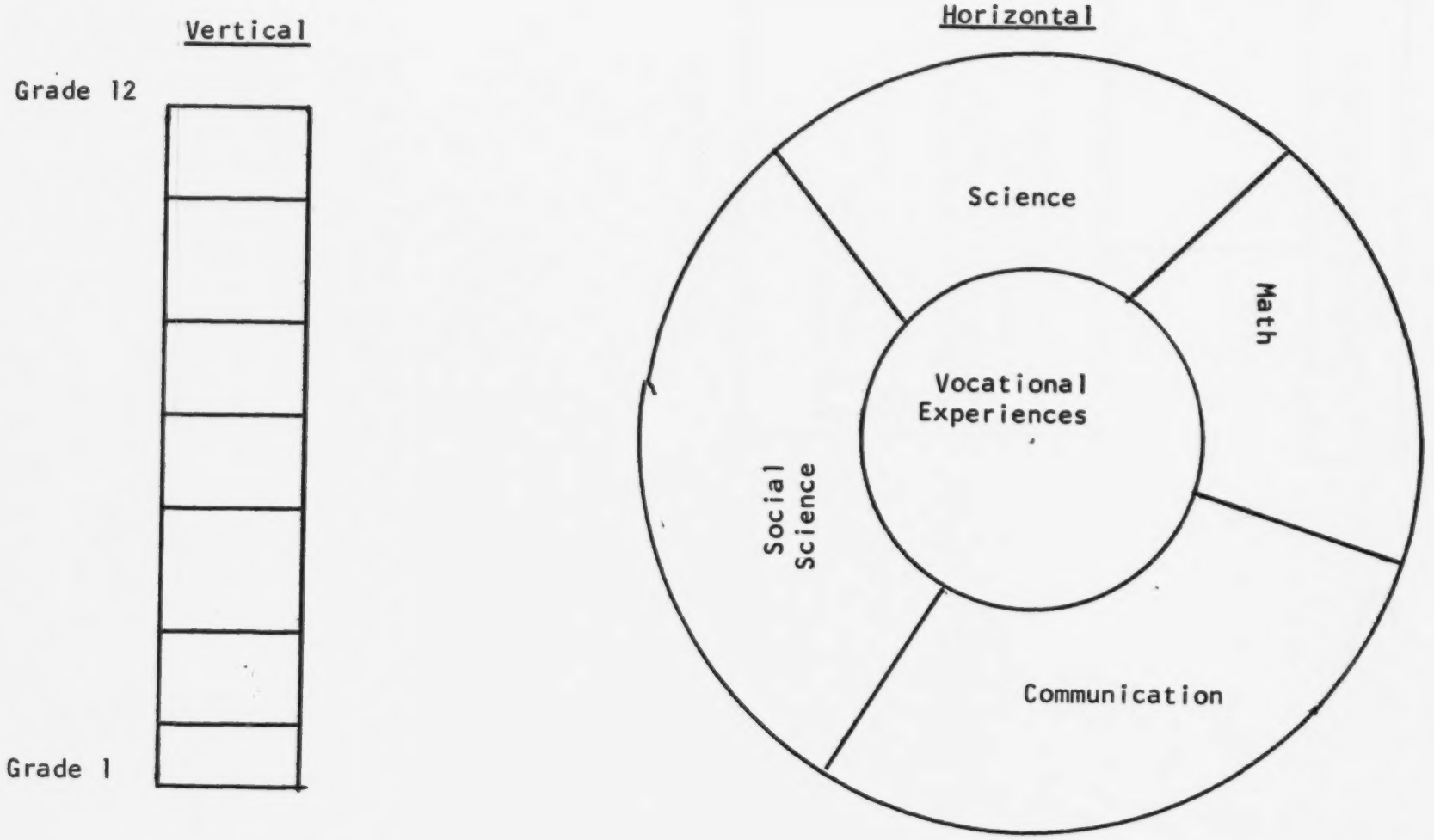


Chart 1.

CONTRASTING CURRICULUM STRUCTURE



Focus is on logical sequence of content

Selection of Coordinators and Teachers -- School superintendents and principals were given a list of traits that a coordinator should possess. In addition, the coordinator must be a graduate from an accredited college or university with professional teaching experience to include at least one year of teaching experience and one year of work experience outside education. After the first year, the coordinator must work toward a master's degree in cooperative education at the rate of five hours per year.

All other teachers chosen to be members of the team must have a professional teaching certificate and must have demonstrated a desire to work with disadvantaged youth.

Staff Development -- Coordinators selected are required to attend a specially planned six-week summer institute prior to program initiation; to enroll in an internship during the first year; and to return for a two-week program the following summer. The intent of this preparation is to enable coordinators to develop and display in their program particular skills, understandings, and attitudes such as:

(a) development of a different mental set regarding what to expect from disadvantaged students;
(b) development of attitudes and techniques required to communicate a concern and a sense of worthwhileness for disadvantaged students;
(c) reassessment of their own needs for success and identification of measures and performance on the part of students different from the normal that might be taken as teacher success;
(d) developing positive expectations of disadvantaged students' achievements and overall behavior;
(e) developing an understanding of the learning style of the disadvantaged and of how learning activities could be structured to utilize their more physical orientation to learning in developing their abilities to learn in abstract;
(f) acquiring coordination skills and understandings regarding work placement such as child labor laws, job development, job placement, and setting up training stations; and
(g) developing group skills to be used in working with both teachers and students.

In addition to the preparation of the coordinator, participating schools were requested to send the team of teachers along with the school principal to a two-day workshop. These workshops were designed to accomplish four major purposes:

(a) To excite and familiarize all of the teachers involved with the program and its intent, nature, and structure.
(b) To allow them to explore the changes that would be required of them in regard to their attitudes, curriculum content, teaching techniques, and school standards.
(c) To present to them the curriculum materials designed to interlock the academic with the vocational.
(d) To allow each team to meet as a group to make specific plans for implementing the program in their school.

The four major points that were emphasized during the two-day workshop were: success motivates; learning through application; relevance in learning; and acceptance.

Class Size -- At the junior high level, the coordinator was expected to work with no more than twenty students per class and no more than three classes per day, or a total of sixty students.

The work experience at the senior high school level becomes more definitive in preparing the student for specific training in a given occupation and demands more in-depth related instruction. A maximum of thirty students was assigned to a coordinator. A more flexible schedule is needed at the senior high level since additional time might be needed on the job.

Student Selection -- In most instances, students were selected by a committee appointed by the school principal with the coordinator serving as chairman. Additional persons might include the guidance counselor, curriculum director, and other teachers. Recommended criteria for selecting students for the program includes:

(a) two or more grade levels below their peers;
(b) frequent or excessive absenteeism;
(c) school alienated; and
(d) dull normal intelligence and above.

In-School Implementation -- In order to receive funds for the program the school principal agreed to schedule at least one hour for the coordinator and the team of academic and vocational teachers to meet weekly for the purpose of across-the-board planning to insure the interlocking of the academic and vocational curriculum.

State-Level Supervision -- To assist local systems in implementing the program, a program monitoring and review procedure was initiated. These procedures consisted of at least two on-site visits by a state staff member at each school, monthly regional meetings for coordinators, monthly reports from coordinators, end-of-year evaluation report, and a summer conference.

Topic III

Preliminary Results -- CVAE Programs

In regard to program implementation, experience has led to the conclusion that if the principal makes the initial decision to implement the program, if a team of teachers from his school participates in the in-service activities, and if weekly meetings are scheduled and carried out by the team of teachers, the program design as conceived can be successfully implemented and a new learning climate can be created for disadvantaged youth.

The initial one-year funding of the program has resulted in eight out of every ten programs being continued beyond the first year.

Four primary measures have been used to evaluate the impact of the program on disadvantaged students. These measures are: attendance, achievement, holding power, and future plans.

The results that I am presenting to you are preliminary in that all the data on all fourteen programs from last year have not been tabulated at this time. The following data represent preliminary findings from one of the programs in which 43 students were enrolled:

Absenteeism decreased from an average of 15 in the 1968-69 school year to an average of 9.1 in the 1969 school year. In regard to school achievement, the grade point average moved from 2.38 during the 1968-69 school year to 2.8 during the 1969-70 school year.

Changes in achievement based on achievement tests are still being computed. In this particular school, none of the 43 students had dropped out and all planned to return the following fall despite the fact that many were already over sixteen years of age.

In regard to future plans, eight of the 43 could not state a vocational preference at the beginning of the program. At the end of the year, all had stated vocational objectives.

In addition, at the beginning of the year, 20 of the students had stated objectives not to complete high school. At the end of the year, only four students of the 43 had stated objectives of not planning to complete high school.

The following represents a summary of observations made by teachers of certain students enrolled in this particular program. To the question "What significant changes, if any, have you noted in the students' behavior?" the following different replies were given:

> "Much more settled, self-confident; student was unhappy last year and first of this year; however, she seems happier now and makes friends easier."
>
> "Physical appearance has changed drastically."
>
> "He is more outgoing. He had a chip on his shoulder last year, but is friendlier this year."
>
> "More verbal than before."
>
> "Better able to concentrate on tasks at hand than before. More settled; thinks ahead."
>
> "Has a different attitude toward school."
>
> "Less back-talk. Better control of temper."
>
> "Gets along better with other students. Better behaved in class."

These statements reflect the teacher's perception of an overall change of attitude in students, both toward school and toward themselves. These more positive statements may also indicate a greater acceptance of these students on the part of the teacher.

Even though our findings are preliminary, we believe that this program has considerable potential in overcoming the problems that have prevented education from meeting the needs of disadvantaged youth.

SUMMARY

Future Plans for Serving Disadvantaged Youth -- In summary, as a result of our experiences in the CVAE program, it is our intent to administer the 15 percent set aside by Public Law 90-576, for disadvantaged students, on a project basis. No project can exceed $40,000 for a single school. The administration of this program will differ in four basic ways from the program that I have outlined for you.

First, funding will be continuous as long as the school accomplishes the product objectives as set forth in the proposal.

Second, the program design presented must provide for serving disadvantaged students in such a manner that they are not totally isolated from regular students.

Third, the school principal must be the project director.

Fourth, greater flexibility will be given to local systems in devising the type of program design they feel would be most effective in meeting the vocational education needs of disadvantaged youth in their systems. However, the program design must meet ten basic operational principles that have been set forth in the proposal guide. (Appendix A).

REFERENCES

Eggeman, Donald F., Robert E. Campbell, and Albino P. Garbin. "Problems in the Transition from School to Work as Perceived by Youth Opportunity Center Counselors," Center for Vocational and Technical Education, Ohio State University, December, 1969.

Reeseman, Frank. The Culturally Deprived Child. Harper and Row. 1962.

APPENDIX A

Guide for Preparing a Proposal for Providing Vocational Education to Disadvantaged Students

I. PURPOSE

As a result of funds appropriated under 102.b of the 1968 Vocational Education Act for the 1970 fiscal year, the Division of Vocational Education will accept proposals for implementing vocational education programs for additional disadvantaged students and for more effectively serving that proportion of disadvantaged students already enrolled at the secondary, post-secondary, and adult levels. Proposals submitted by school systems must comply with the criteria set forth in this guide, and be submitted to the State Director of Vocational Education no later than the dates specified in this guide.

Disadvantaged students are those students who have academic, socio-economic, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in vocational education programs designed for persons without such handicaps, and who for that reason require specially designed educational programs or related services. The characteristics of disadvantaged persons include the following:

a. persons with poor educational backgrounds;
b. persons who are semi-skilled or unskilled workers receiving less than poverty level incomes;
c. persons from areas characterized by excessive unemployment;
d. persons from areas characterized by excessive low income rates;
e. members of ethnic minority groups which have been discriminated against;
f. persons who have been isolated from cultural, educational, and/or employment opportunities;
g. persons who, due to a combination of environmental, cultural, and historical factors, lack motivation for obtaining an education or job skill; and
h. persons who are dependent upon social services to meet their basic needs.

II. NATURE OF PROJECTS

In order for a proposal to be considered for funding, it must describe how funds requested will be tied to existing resources for the purpose of enabling the total school to accept its responsibilities for preparing the disadvantaged student for successful entrance into and adjustment to the world of work. Proposals that fail to make provisions for each of the following items will not be considered for funding, and will be returned to local systems without further consideration.

FIRST, the proposal must be limited to one school (either secondary or post-secondary or a junior and senior high school in which the junior high is a feeder to the secondary school), and must describe how funds requested will be used in directing the educational program in such a

manner as to provide disadvantaged students with cognitive, attitudinal, and manipulative skills necessary for employment in a specific occupation, or in a cluster of occupations.

SECOND, the proposal must provide for serving disadvantaged students in such a manner that they are not totally isolated from regular students.

THIRD, the proposal must provide for interlocking of academic and vocational curriculums in such a manner that the concrete experiences of either the vocational laboratories or work training settings provide immediate and direct application of academic learning. The proposal must describe the staffing pattern, curriculum design and supervision to be used in implementing a coordinating academic and vocational program.

FOURTH, the proposal must describe how the school will create a climate in which disadvantaged students succeed and develop pride in who they are and what they are to become.

FIFTH, the proposal must provide for sending appropriate personnel to special summer workshops and institutes. (Contact the Division of Vocational Education for a listing of institutes and workshops.)

SIXTH, the program design must provide assurance that the administrative head of the school where the project is to be conducted accepts the responsibility for the development, implementation, and accomplishment of the objectives specified.

SEVENTH, the proposal must describe in sequential order the activities the school plans to perform in preparing disadvantaged youth and adults for initial entrance to employment or higher level employment in the world of work including the following:

(a) pre-planning and in-service activities;
(b) student recruitment;
(c) procedures and criteria for student identification;
(d) procedures for preparing individual educational prescriptions and placing students into courses at different grade levels or at different points in time;
(e) establishing and implementing instructional programs (for the secondary level, a progression should be shown from grade seven through twelve; and at the post-secondary level, from the beginning of the program to the completion;
(f) procedures for monitoring students' progress, and for continuing supervision and modification of the program;
(g) nature and type of supportive assistance;
(h) procedures for providing job placement and follow-up assistance needed to help students maintain employment.

EIGHTH, the proposal must provide for moving the school toward comprehensive vocational offerings and toward training in occupational areas with greatest demand.

NINTH, the proposal must describe how the school will utilize and involve community resources in accomplishing the product objectives.

TENTH, the proposal must describe the significant contributions to be made through project implementation toward the further development of present vocational programs.

Post-training Occupational Behavior and Psychological Correlates

Joseph E. Champagne *

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Perhaps at no time in our history has the young labor force entrant been faced with more alternatives and at the same time more barriers to successful assimilation into the American labor force. To most who are of secondary school age this transition from school to work presents challenges never before experienced and too often unrecognized at the time of transition. With aspirations high, self-confidence bolstered by a diploma, and a spirit of freedom from the classroom, he seeks entry into the labor force often to find that the world of work is not an easy world, that his training certificate and diploma are not tickets to instant success, and that he has to start at the entry level. With this initital frustration resolved, he then often finds that while he has some advantage and indeed some skill, it is not so well recognized by his employer as he feels it should be and his upward occupational mobility will be a long hard climb. He can stick with it or he can change jobs, the latter being a favorite choice of many. And thus he is in the labor force somewhat disappointed and definitely on a difficult road to career fulfillment.

There are many problems faced by the young entrant that will be looked at in this paper; however, focus will be broadened to include a wide category of entrants or re-entrants to include the dropout and the graduate, the disadvantaged and the non-disadvantaged, the white and the non-white. This paper will direct its attention to the experience of post-training labor force entry or re-entry. It will look at psychological factors which affect behavior, both in terms of motivation and work-related attitudes; it will look at entry or re-entry modes, practices, and experiences; it will look at various structural problems put before the entrant or re-entrant and his attempts at resolving them; it will look at what educators can do in relation to this period of transition from training to employment; and finally, it will suggest alternatives for a continuing assessment of post-training experiences and problems.

This paper has been prepared in a readable fashion unlike many technical reports which provide valuable data but do so in a format which is either difficult to digest or unappealing to read. The paper is based upon an extensive review of the published literature, much of which was taken from government progress or final reports of relevant projects, upon research reports related to the problems in focus, upon accepted psychological and sociological theory applied to this framework, and finally upon the experiences of the author during the past several years in investigating many of these related areas. The paper represents an attempt at presenting a readable integration of the many bits of data and factors involved in a format which will be of value to vocational educators in attempting to understand better the transition from training to work.

---

* Dr. Champagne is Associate Director, Center for Human Resources, University of Houston, Houston, Texas.

POST-TRAINING ENVIRONMENT AND BEHAVIOR

In this section of this paper we will attempt to give a picture of the world of work environment into which the trainee will emerge and the various modes or behavioral tendencies resulting from such entry. Needless to say, it will be impossible to discuss all of the environmental supports or restraints and the near infinite ways with which these situations are handled on an individual basis. Nevertheless, certain consistencies are present and lend themselves to discussion.

It is well known that the rates of unemployment among teenage youth are extremely severe. As a general rule, which roughly approximates the true picture, it seems that teenage unemployment follows this pattern: white males, 3-4 times the total national unemployment rate; white females, 4-5 times the total national unemployment rate; non-white males, 5-6 times the total national unemployment rate; non-white females, 6-7 times the total national unemployment rate. These trends highlight a rather grim picture for the youthful labor market entrant. The following table documents the national unemployment rate of teenagers and compares this rate with older workers. Some historical data are presented as a matter of interest which point out that the problem is increasing rather than decreasing.

Table 1. Unemployment Rates by Race, Sex, and Age for 1950,1960,1968.

	16-17	18-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64
White Males							
1950	13.4	11.7	7.7	3.9	3.2	3.7	4.7
1960	14.6	13.5	8.3	4.1	3.3	3.6	4.1
1968	12.3	8.2	4.6	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.7
White Females							
1950	13.8	9.4	6.1	5.2	4.0	4.3	4.3
1960	14.5	11.5	7.2	5.7	4.2	4.0	3.3
1968	13.9	11.0	5.9	3.9	3.1	2.3	2.1
Non-white Males							
1950	12.1	17.7	12.6	10.0	7.9	7.4	8.0
1960	22.7	25.1	13.1	10.7	8.2	8.5	9.5
1968	26.6	19.0	8.3	3.8	2.9	2.5	3.6
Non-white Females							
1950	17.6	14.1	13.0	9.1	6.6	5.9	4.8
1960	25.7	24.5	15.3	9.1	8.6	5.7	4.3
1968	33.7	26.2	12.3	8.4	5.0	3.2	2.8

SOURCE: Manpower Report of the President, Statistical Supplement, U.S. Department of Labor, 1969, p.15.

But when one adds the other compounding factors of serious underemployment, which are estimated as high as 40 percent for some groups, and the probability of slow occupational mobility at best, the picture further darkens. There are many reasons for the relative disadvantage of teenage labor market entry, many of which find their genesis in the increasing educational and/or experiential demands in jobs brought about by a rapidly increasing complexity of job requirements. There is a consequent lessening of the number of jobs that the minimally educated or experienced can handle adequately in terms of employer criteria. Some experts from the University of Michigan estimate that in 1970 the educational requirements for jobs in America are as follows: Elementary school or less, 6 percent; high school or vocational school, 26 percent; post-high school education or training but less than 4 years college, 50 percent; college degree or more, 18 percent. Thus 68 percent of all jobs are beyond the scope of the youthful entrant who has only completed high school. Even fewer are open to the dropout. There are many other factors which bear on employment: the inadequate preparation for work life of many teenagers, their lack of experience, their inability to achieve seniority, the fact that economic slow-downs impact most heavily on the jobs teenagers typically hold, the increasing minimum wage, the stereotype of many employers on the rebelliousness and lack of dependability of youth today, the often unrealistic work expectations of youth, the pattern of job switching prevalent among youth, and the often unclear problems of child labor laws, employer insurance premiums, the military draft, etc. All of these factors sum to one situation: high teenage unemployment and subemployment.

The estimated population for males according to the 1969 Manpower Report of the President, aged 16-19 for 1970 is 7.6 million and for females is 7.4 million. The estimated labor force participation rate for males in 1970 is 56.4 percent and for females, it is 39.4 percent. By 1975 the projected population for males of this age range is expected to be 8.3 million and for females, 8.1 million with labor force participation rates of 56.2 percent and 39.6 percent respectively. When one applies the high rates of unemployment and subemployment to the 1970 labor force teenage participants, he sees that the number of youth with employment problems reaches into the millions nationally. And unless remedies are found, the problem will indeed increase in the 70's. One would not be too wrong in saying that the problems of youth labor market entry are nationally of crisis proportion. Individually, they impact directly on the lives of many youth, often in serious ways which many social scientists feel lead to a frustration that alienates youth from the very system which they need to embrace. The recent report of the Kerner Commission on Civil Disorder well-documented that unemployment was a major factor contributing to civil disorder. And this socia lly negative behavior further reinforces the stereotypes of many employers concerning the high employment risks of youth due to rebelliousness and a lack of dependability.

This frustration, most apparent in disadvantaged youth, is also expressed in behavior that is directly related to job dissatisfaction, namely, turnover. The following quotation from a U. S. Department of Labor publication attests to this fact:

> "Among disadvantaged youth, turnover rates are high, partially reflecting the inadequacy of unorganized job placement efforts. The personnel director of a light manufacturing firm in a midwest city noted that 10 percent of the disadvantaged youth employed by the company quit after the first day of employment, an additional 15 percent left by the end of the first week, and fully 66 percent of those hired left at the end of the first month, A large heavy manufacturing company reported that 90 percent of all disadvantaged youth who had been employed left by the end of 3 months." [1]

Another study sponsored by the U. S. Department of Labor and the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare seems to indicate that the first five months of the job after training are most critical and the time in which worker adequacy and acceptability is established. Beyond that period there are comparatively fewer problems and frustrations.[2] But if turnover in the first few weeks is so great, it may be several years before a youth is able to find a job he will continue on for that long a period.

Turnover and unavailability of suitable jobs not only prevents the build up of tenure and seniority, but also obviously creates extended unemployment accumulations of time. For example, it was reported by the U. S. Department of Labor in one study[3] that of youths leaving school at the end of the regular school year, by October of that same year 33.5 percent of the graduates were unemployed five or more weeks. For dropouts the percentage was 29.5 (which does seem paradoxical, except that dropouts may accept more marginal jobs not acceptable to graduates).

In a study on teenage employment in Houston by the current author[4] it was found that within a sample of 256 teenagers approximately twelve months after leaving school, 12 percent of the white youth reported no employment in the past twelve months and for black youth, 22 percent reported the same. The average number of weeks of unemployment for those unemployed at the time of the study interview was 13.4 weeks for white youth and 18.9 weeks for black youth. But it was also learned that of those unemployed who did want a job, the average number of weeks since a job was actively sought was 11.2 for the white youth and only 3.7 for the black youth. In general, little difference in the above statistics was found between high school graduates and high school dropouts.

Several tables from the Labor Force Report referred to above shed interesting insight into the level of employment the youth enter. These have been combined and modified for inclusion here. These Tables point out concisely the kinds of occupations into which the young labor force entrant is placed. There are somewhat explanatory, but it is interesting to note in Table 3 that over 20 percent of the laborers are youth, nearly three times the percentage of all youth in the total labor force. This fact must be reflected in the job-seeking and job-maintaining behavior of youth. Most laborer jobs are dead-end in nature with virtually no possibility of significant upward occupational mobility. This fact serves

to increase the probability of turnover for youth resulting from job dissatisfaction.

Table 2. Occupational Distribution of Youth by Sex and Education (1968)

	MEN (Percents)				WOMEN (Percents)			
EDUCATION	White Collar	Blue Collar	Service	Farm	White Collar	Blue Collar	Service	Farm
1968 H.S. Graduates	20.3	65.4	8.7	5.5	66.9	16.4	15.7	-
1967-68 H.S.Dropouts	14.9	69.0	9.7	6.2	29.4	29.5	37.9	-

Table 3. Labor Force and Employment for Youth Aged 16-19 (1968)

Category	Total Labor Force, 16 Years and over (Millions)	Labor Force 16-19 Years (Millions)	Percent of Total
Civilian Labor Force	78.7	6.6	8.4
Employed	75.9	5.8	7.6
Laborers	5.1	1.1	22.0
Service Workers	9.2	1.3	13.9
Operatives	13.9	1.1	7.5
Clerical	12.8	1.3	10.4
Sales	4.6	.5	10.6
All other	30.1	.5	1.6

The study made by Max Eninger[5] on T & I graduates in 1964 is significant. He worked with a national sample of members of graduating classes in 1953, 1958, and 1962. His follow-up study showed that white graduates experienced more labor market success than black graduates, with blacks having been employed about 79 percent of their employable time and whites employed about 88 percent of their employable time. Blacks required three times as much time to find their first full-time jobs as whites. In addition, fewer blacks than whites were able to find jobs in their areas of training. Stability on jobs appeared as less for blacks than for whites, while earnings growth rate, as well as job satisfaction, was greater for whites than blacks.

Kaufman[6] has summarized the results of one of his U. S. Office of Education funded projects. This study covered approximately 8000 youth from vocational, academic, and general secondary curricula. It involved a survey of school personnel, employers, and union officials. His study showed that male graduates of vocational curricula tend to concentrate in manufacturing-type jobs, whereas, graduates of the academic and general curricula tend to find jobs in the white collar sector. He

states: "It would appear from these and other data that the vocational males tend to obtain more jobs which require a specific skill. This, of course, is what one would have anticipated."[7] Female graduates showed no clear employment differences across curriculum areas. Thus, it became clear that the patterns of jobs obtained after graduation for males differed greatly by reason of type of secondary curriculum, but this was not true for females.

Kaufman also discussed earnings, and since earnings directly affect labor market behavior, it is discussed here. He found no differences in first-job-after-graduation earnings across curriculum areas for females, but did find that the male vocational curriculum graduates surpassed the academic and general curricula graduates. He cautions however, that these earnings were for the first year after graduation and that longitudinal studies would be needed to assess the long-range earning differences. In fact, there is evidence that the initial higher earnings of vocational graduates is lost over time as the non-vocational graduate develops his skills on the job. It seems clear that the vocational graduate has an initial earnings advantage over the non-vocational graduate at the outset. However, Mangum and Levitan[8] in a summary of research literature state:

> "In summary, the type of high school training in general appears to make little difference in employment and earnings. Vocational graduates tend to have an initial advantage which is overcome and surpassed in time by the more broadly trained academic student. However, when the lower average ability and relatively unfavorable socio-economic backgrounds of the vocational graduates are considered, they do appear to retain a net advantage from their training. This does not mean that present vocational education methods are the best desirable, however. It justifies only the conclusion that, for those not continuing beyond high school, preparation for employment is better than no preparation for employment."

Kaufman presented some data on job satisfactions. He found, for example, on the vocational students the data summarized in Table 4 below. He also found that the vocational graduates tend to hold on to their jobs

Table 4. Type of First Job Obtained as Compared with Type of Job Wanted for a Sample of Vocational Graduates

Job Category	MALE		FEMALE	
	First Job Obtained	Job Wanted	First Job Obtained	Job Wanted
White Collar	32%	34%	70%	77%
Service	8%	2%	15%	15%
Manufacturing	60%	64%	15%	8%

longer than the non-vocational graduates and tend to have a greater satisfaction with the pay received on the jobs and the promotion possibilities of the jobs. However, the vocational graduates tend to seek out less post-secondary job-related training than do the non-vocational graduates, a factor when viewed in light of the University of Michigan educational requirements for jobs, could handicap them in terms of future employment or occupational mobility.

A very significant aspect of the behavior of the labor force entrant is his job search. How does he in fact find employment? Kaufman provided data of interest here too. The results of his study are summarized in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Methods Used to Obtain First Job by Education and Sex (Percents)

Method	MALE			FEMALE		
	Vocational	General	Academic	Vocational	General	Academic
Personal Applications	34	42	40	31	34	44
Friend	26	32	29	19	19	20
School	23	7	6	23	20	9
Agency	7	9	12	13	14	13
Answered Ad	5	6	6	6	4	6
Other	5	4	7	8	9	8

It is clear from the above data that the school does take a greater interest in the post-graduation employment of its vocational students than in its other students. This is probably attributed to the fact that more vocational teachers have close contacts with employers than non-vocational teachers, with the result that students get placed. Some placement no doubt results from cooperative programs as well. It is too bad that Kaufman did not present racial comparisons in this summary of his research.

It has been widely demonstrated in numerous areas that the young labor force entrant is quite naive about and inadequately counseled in labor force entry techniques. If the youth is of disadvantaged background, the problems may even be acute. Similar problems face rural youth whether they remain in rural areas in search of employment or whether they move to the larger communities which may be quite strange to them and require unfamiliar behavior. Such behavior often handicaps the youth further when he does make contact with the potential employer, since his behavior appears unstable and not that desired by employers.

The 1966 Manpower Report of the President reports that within a sample of 16-21 year-old high school graduates and dropouts, methods of obtaining their first jobs varied greatly by race and educational attainment. In summary, 6 percent of the white dropouts and 5 percent of the non-white dropouts found their first jobs through placement services, whereas 20 percent of the white graduates and 15 percent of the Negro graduates utilized the placement service. Reasons speculated for this are that the graduate has a more salable employment profile and he thereby is helped more by the placement services. The dropout doesn't have this advantage. Forty-three percent of the white dropouts and 61 percent of the non-white dropouts received their first employment placement through friends and relatives, whereas only 25 percent and 44 percent respectively of the white and non-white graduates found their first jobs through friends and relatives. In respect to direct employment applications the figures are: 45 percent for white graduates; 31 percent for non-white graduates; 41 percent for white dropouts; and 23 percent for non-white dropouts. These data indicate that the job search behavior of the non-white approximates that of the dropout in many respects, both groups suffering from disadvantage. However, it is likely that there are some data confounding between non-whites and dropouts in that a greater proportion of the dropouts were probably also non-white.

A study in Massachusetts in the mid-1960's by Kidder[9] provides a wealth of cross-racial job search experiences. She found that in all skill levels blacks experienced greater rates of rejection in the job interviews, and blacks apply more frequently for their jobs than whites. Blacks, in addition, turned more often to formal sources such as the State Employment Service for all levels except professionals and more blacks than whites paid for employment guidance through private agencies. Blacks also had a greater reliance on newspaper ads than whites. However, the predominant method of job search for both races was the direct application to employers known to be hiring. What the Kidder study documents is the greater difficulty of job obtainment faced by blacks in Massachusetts than whites and the more intensive job search behavior that this fact causes. Blacks look more for jobs because they are turned down more often.

Operation Retrieval of the U. S. Department of Labor was a project designed at studying the results of 55 experimental and demonstration projects related to youth employment. Many excellent publications resulted from this dissemination undertaking. The work of Louis Ferman of the University of Michigan impacts directly on a discussion of post-training behavior. All of the studies are summarized in the previously footnoted publication, Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth. In Ferman's report it is seen that the failure of many disadvantaged youth emerging from training programs in finding employment is often multidimensional. For example, unattended medical problems, inadequate grooming, over-dressing for the interview in styles which clash with the middle class tastes of job interviews, and poor posture were significant employment barriers. Insecurity in the job interview situation is often interpreted as emotional instability, or just plain employment unawareness. Among the severely disadvantaged trainees, basic education deficiencies overshadowed any skill competency developed in training. Problems of inadequate transportation or the inability to purchase required tools, materials, or uniforms were conditions correlated with poverty and definite employment barriers.

The study on teenage employment by the present employer footnoted earlier in this paper looked at the job-seeking behaviors of low-income youth who were not college bound. Table 6 below summarizes the results of how the teenagers in the sample employed at the time of the study interview found their employment. Table 7 shows how the teenagers unemployed at the time of the study were in fact seeking employment.

Table 6. How Employed Teenagers Obtained Job in Houston Teenage Employment Study

	State Employment Service %	School Placement %	Other Placement %	Applied in Person %	Answered Ad %	Other %
White	4	5	11	42	8	30
Negro	10	7	5	51	2	25
Male	6	4	2	54	5	29
Female	7	10	16	23	6	26
Graduate	7	9	12	40	5	27
Dropout	4	2	2	58	6	30
White Male	6	0	2	53	6	34
Negro Male	7	7	4	57	4	21
White Female	3	13	24	26	11	24
Negro Female	13	6	6	45	0	29
White Graduate	3	8	15	34	8	31
Negro Graduate	14	8	8	49	0	22
White Dropout	7	0	3	57	7	27
Negro Dropout	0	5	0	57	5	33

Table 7. Employment Seeking Methods Being Used By Unemployed Teenagers Seeking Employment in the Houston Teenage Employment Study

	State Emp. Service %	School Place. Service %	Public Place. Service %	Personal Appl. %	Asking Friends %	Answering Ads %	Misc. Ways %
White	38	1	18	81	50	45	0
Negro	37	1	25	76	50	35	0
Male	27	1	1	81	50	21	0
Female	45	1	33	76	50	42	0
Graduate	50	1	50	84	47	47	0
Dropout	24	0	11	72	53	22	0

Of important consideration here related to behavior after labor force entry is the reason for frictional unemployment. Perella[10] presents tabular data on her study which is summarized in Table 8.

Table 8. Reasons for Unemployment in October, 1968, for 16-21 Year Old Youth. (Percents)

	Graduates		Dropouts	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Layoff	7.9	6.3	6.3	3.8
Fired	13.9	16.0	30.8	12.4
Quit	29.7	16.9	26.6	21.7
Left School	22.8	22.8	18.2	14.0
Wanted Temporary Work	5.0	12.2	2.1	14.7
Other	20.8	25.7	16.1	33.3

A rural teenage employment study recently conducted by Rogers and associates.[11] in North Carolina shed insights into the reasons for unemployment among rural youth. The reasons for unemployment at the time of the study indicated that 48.8 percent had lost their jobs, whereas the remaining 51.2 percent had quit or were new entrants in search of work. Of those who did have employment, 71.4 percent lost their last job, whereas 23.8 percent merely quit. The Champagne study referred to above investigated this aspect too. His results are summarized in Table 9 below.

Table 9. Major Reason for Leaving Previous Job in Houston Teenage Employment Study

	Quit %	Laid Off %	Fired %	Other %
White	48	13	8	31
Negro	38	13	4	45
Male	38	16	8	38
Female	46	10	3	41
Graduate	42	14	4	40
Dropout	43	11	8	38
White Male	41	12	10	37
Negro Male	34	20	6	40
White Female	60	15	5	20
Negro Female	41	8	2	50
White Graduate	52	10	3	35
Negro Graduate	37	17	12	42
White Dropout	43	17	17	27
Negro Dropout	42	6	3	48

Finally this section of this paper would not be complete if there were not some comments related to the employer point of view. This impacts directly on labor force behavior of the young entrant. The discussion here will stem from data of the two teenage studies referred to above, i.e., that of Rogers and that of Champagne. Both of these studies not only dealt with the youth directly, but also with employers. Data from the Rogers study will be considered first. He studies 116 firms employing a total of 9,255 persons or an average of 80 persons per establishment. This type of small employer is typical of the rural employer. The total percentage of teenagers among these workers was 6 percent with approximately 30 percent of these being black. Thirty-one of the 116 firms had no teenage employees. Seventy of the firms reported jobs of the lower skill categories for teenagers with only one firm reporting skilled jobs for teenagers. Only nine firms reported job vacancies open to teenagers at the time of the study. Where young labor force entrants were to find employment is indeed a good question. The employers were asked to cite problems in the employment of teenagers. Dependability, mainly in terms of showing up for work, was the main problem. Other problem areas mentioned include selective service, safety, lack of training, instability, company policy, etc.

The Champagne study covered larger manufacturers in the Houston area. A total of 109 employers participated with a total employment of 45,732 workers. Of these only 3.6 percent were teenagers. Seventy of the firms indicated they would hire no teenagers at the time of the study with the main reason being that no jobs were available. Nineteen firms indicated they would not hire teenagers because of their instability or lack of experience. Even though Houston has a very low unemployment rate with labor very tight, many firms report they simply would not hire teenagers. As in the Rogers study, most of the jobs open to teenagers were semi- to unskilled type jobs. The employers rated the work performance of the teenagers as good, but rated dependability as only fair. It is clear from these two teenage studies that the employment prospects for the youthful labor market entrant are indeed grim. The young entrant in rural areas is often forced to migrate to the cities where, in reality, the employment prospects are not as bright as he anticipated. We shall see later in this report some of the psychological impacts of these employment-related hardships. It is indeed true that many youth pass through this phase of life rather smoothly and make an orderly transition from school to work. But it is likewise true that many do not make such a smooth transition. It is with these that we should be most concerned, for they need all the assistance they can get.

In this section of this paper we have attempted to look at the environment into which the new labor force entrant is emerging, some of the characteristics of these entrants, and their behavior in this new and often strange environment. We have drawn heavily from government-sponsored research reports. In researching this section it became clear to the author that far too little is known about post-training behavior. There has been no systematic study focusing on what people do as they move from training to employment and acclimate themselves to their new roles. Bits and pieces from a host of studies have been put together. Perhaps the most outstanding work in the field is the book entitled,

Entry into the Labor Force, by Jeffry Piker. Published in 1969, this book summarizes, study by study within a logical framework, hundreds of studies which have somehow related to labor force entry. However, the studies are often too old, in the current author's opinion, to be of practical utility and there is a great deal of study redundancy. However, no one interested in labor force entry behavior should be without this book, for its reference value is unquestioned.

PSYCHOLOGICAL DETERMINANTS AND CORRELATES

In this section an attempt will be made to present relevant psychological theory which can be related to the behavior of persons upon entry into the labor force and the acceptance of jobs. The materials here are drawn from research in the fields of Industrial and Social Psychology and from the area of personality theory. The author wishes to acknowledge that there are many theories and much divergent research related to the concepts discussed. However, it is felt that what is presented here is both sound psychologically and will shed useful insights in accounting for behavior upon and after labor market entry. Much has necessarily been reduced to fit into the framework of this paper. It is firmly believed by the author that much of the immediate behavior in the labor market can be affected by the pre-labor market training environment especially if the student participated in it for an extended period of time as in a high school vocational curriculum lasting two or more years or a post-secondary technical institute type program. For this reason much of the discussion that follows will relate back to the labor market entrant as student. It is prior to labor market entrance that the vocational educator can make his greatest impact. Therefore, to demonstrate how pre-labor market experiences affect post-labor market behavior is relevant in this context. It is hoped that in this way the vocational educator might gain insights into how he can help provide an environment in training which will induce positive and rewarding behavior later on the job. Finally, it is pointed out that much of what is being stated here has been pointed out or suggested in an earlier paper of the present author, entitled, "A Conceptual Model for the Evaluation of Changes in Selected Personality Variables Through Occupational Education." It is believed that this current paper adds to the earlier paper in a significant way to apply psychological theory to the transition from school to work and behavior thereafter. It is therefore not necessary to refer to what is contained here, but its presence must be acknowledged.

The Structure of Personality

The trend of modern personality theory is more away from conceptualizing the personality system as rigid, inflexible and predetermined singularly by factors of heredity and early childhood. Rather, more and more, the personality system is being conceptualized as a dynamic system influenced by the past and by heredity but responsive to the demands of the environment. Some theorists go back many years in this dynamic conceptualization. For example, the late Gordon Aliport over thirty years ago defined personality as: "The dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environments."[2] Several concepts need to be clarified in this

definition. First, the use of the phrase "dynamic organization" means that personality is in a constant state of development and change, while at the same time bound together by a certain orderliness, system, or integrating function. The use of the word "psychophysical" points out that personality is"... Neither exclusively mental or exclusively neural. The organization entails the operation of both body and mind inextricably fused into a personal unity." Finally, the fact that personality <u>is</u> something and <u>does</u> something is pointed out by the use of the word "determine." In Allport's words: "Personality...is what lies <u>behind</u> specific acts and within the individual."

This widely accepted theory posits that an individual is a dynamic entity founded in change itself. Allport also specifies that personality is really a state of "becoming," which is highly flexible and which provides for a limitless plasticity within the individual. He does this by positing that motives, the foundations of behavior, are "functionally autonomous," that is, they are not completely dependent upon the past, but rather supported by the present and motivated by perceived future goal attainments. What an individual is striving to become or not become is the most important key to how he behaves or will behave.

So many psychologists have turned to the past to unlock the riddle of future behavior. But such theorizing almost forces one to accept the notion that personality, being a determined product of the past, predestines the future and that personality growth and development is restricted almost entirely by the strength of the past. Man would be little more than an inflexible mass of organic matter, bound by what he has been, with little control over what he can become. If this were the case, education would have a task of almost insurmountable magnitude in trying to change or increase man's capabilities.

We should not go so far as to state that the past has no influence on the present or future, for such a proposition is clearly inconsistent with behavioral evidence. The effect of the distant past is real and is strong, but the distant past does not have to be a sole determinant of the future. It is clear that in some individuals the links to the past are strong and may be deterministic of present or future behavior. But this often is a sign of personal immaturity. In fact there is some evidence to state that the more present motives are directed by the past, the less the maturity of the individual and the less his personality system will be able to respond to changing environment. In the mature individual, the experiences of the past guide current modes or styles of behavior in much the same way as any learned process affects the present. It is true that present motives may spring from the past and may have their origins historically in the past, but as current energy sources they are not necessarily controlled by the past. The remain flexible to the demands of the present and are driven by the satisfactions to be derived from future goal attainments. Finally, it may be well to quote again from Allport concerning the functional autonomy of motives. He says:

> "(1)...Motives are contemporary, that whatever drives must drive now; that the 'go' of a motive is not bound <u>functionally</u> to its historical origins or to early goals, but to present goals only; (2) that the character of motives alters

so radically from infancy to maturity that we may speak of adult motives as supplanting the motives of infancy; (3) that the maturity of personality is measured by the degree of functional autonomy its motives have achieved; even though in every personality there are archaisms (infantilisms, regressions, reflex responses), still the cultivated and socialized individual shows maturity to the extent that he has overcome early forms of motivation; (4) that the differentiating course of learning (reflecting ever more diversified environmental influence), acting upon divergent temperaments and abilities, creates individualized motives." [13]

In summary, what motivates behavior, does so now, in the present. Behavior is not determined solely by the past, but rather has a basis in the historical past, and is the product of the here and now as oriented toward the future. The acceptance of this kind of a theory of personality sets the tone for a dynamic educational and occupational process. Such a theory makes behavior modification real and possible as well as providing a basis for developing motivation and shaping and changing attitudes. Man need not be viewed as having come from an inflexible mold which will break rather than bend in yielding to proper stimulation. Individuals do have freedom and autonomy in that current behavior can function with considerable freedom from the past, but a freedom influenced and shaped by previous learning and experience. To eliminate the past as an influence is ridiculous, for our wide range of summated experiences makes us what we are and causes us to perceive the world in the unique ways we do. But the behavioral plasticity to adapt and change and respond with autonomy is likewise there. The degree of one's psychological maturity determines one's response autonomy to present situations. We shall use this personality plasticity framework as the basis for what will follow. It is imperative, however, to keep this concept of individual autonomy clearly in focus in interpreting the more specific ideas to be presented below.

Motivation

Research on this topic is indeed extensive. One recent review of published material referenced over 2200 separate entries and this work did not propose to be a complete review, rather a selected review of the motivational literature. We shall attempt here to provide sound concepts which we feel bear directly on the topic in discussion, namely post-training labor market and job behavior.

The first part of this discussion will focus on a broad motivation theory which builds directly on the Allport concept of personality plasticity. It is the basic motivation theory of Abraham Maslow, who has indeed received so much attention in recent years. Maslow's theory may be characterized as a theory of "growth" motivation. It is a theory of increasing psychological complexity and autonomy. Basically the theory postulates that the satisfaction of one need is prepotent to the arousal of another need and that need satisfaction is ordered in a hierarchy. The hierarchy from the lowest order needs to the highest order needs is: (1) physiological needs such as hunger and thirst; (2) safety needs such as security and fear of the unknown; (3) love needs

such as affiliation and affection; (4) esteem needs such as self-respect and respect from others; and (5) self-actualization needs such as self-fulfillment and total personal development. This hierarchy is not absolutely fixed, but does allow for certain reversals in various situations. It is best to say that lower order needs are largely satisfied before higher order needs have genuine motivational strength. In this context then, it is clear that motivated behavior is goal directed, i.e., the satisfaction of the basic categories of human needs as defined by Maslow are satsified with some degree of hierarchical order. It is true that at various stages in our growth and development, we are concerned with certain classes of needs (five in the Maslow framework). What level of need we are preoccupied with at any stage in life will determine how we perceive our environment and what expectations, aspirations and hopes we have from it. This theoretical framework provides a working basis to understand post-training behavior and helps to explain why behavior varies across socio-economic, or educational, or cultural conditions. Research across ethnic groups has shown significant behavioral and psychological differences in respect to work behavior and work-related attitudes. Some of these differences can be accounted for by working back to the basic theory presented here. Classes of needs present themselves to us for satisfaction in a somewhat systematic way ranging from the basic biological and physiological life necessities up through total psychological emancipation as found in the truly self-actualized person.

It is sometimes difficult to grasp the concept of the self-fulfilled man. Maslow characterizes him as possessing a number of well-defined traits which would include increased personal autonomy and self-satisfaction, effective and satisfying interpersonal relationships, general satisfaction, awareness of personal values, a sound perception of reality and his relationship with it, responsiveness to change and the ability to cope with problems and the acceptance of and tolerance for the values, beliefs and opinions of others. Many people possess these traits; some possess some but not all and some possess nearly none. All depends upon how well the individual has coped with reality and has found satisfaction of various needs more basic to life. Psychological growth therefore is the moving up the hierarchical ladder of need fulfillment.

The framework is now set to look specifically at more defined needs. Obviously one of the basic needs for educational and occupational success is the need for achievement. The achievement motive may simply be defined as a tendency to strive for success in situations involving an evaluation of one's performance in relation to some standards of success or excellence. The literature on achievement motivation is extensive and the work of David McClelland, as far back as the 1940's, is among the most significant. An excellent review of achievement motivation theory was published in 1966 by Atkinson and Feather.[14] The achievement motive produces states of immediate effect, the satisfaction of a need to accomplish a given objective. It is probably true that persons high in the need to achieve are also high in their levels of aspiration, but realistically high. It is known that people high in need for achievement have a tendency to select tasks involving risks of <u>intermediate</u> difficulty and thereby allowing themselves to achieve the task goal and experience the resultant satisfaction. On the other hand, persons low in need for achievement select either high risk or low risk tasks. The former does

not lead to goal attainment, but to frustration and discouragement; the latter leads to goal attainment but with little or no sustaining satisfaction. Both high and low risk task undertaking do not reinforce the achievement motive, but instead lead to high anxiety or frustration and to a stifled desire to excel. The point to be made is that vocational students need to be nurtured in respect to achievement motivations so that they neither become overachievers and thereby frustrated or underachievers and thereby not challenged. This type of training environment will provide experiences prior to labor market entry which will have effects on coping behaviors later on the job.

Even more basic is the attainment of goals which will foster a respect for self and encourage attaining more difficult goals. Certainly, it is within the realm of the vocational educator to structure an environment which allows the student to taste achievement by success at numerous undertakings. Nothing breeds success better than success. On the other hand, if the environment is structured so difficult as constantly to frustrate the student, he may develop a sense of futility which could seriously affect his self-confidence and self-determination. This poor educational or training ability self-concept has been known to lead to a poor occupational ability self-concept. The psychological chain reaction which can set in may result in a lowered level of occupational aspiration. Haller,[15] a rural sociologist, states that the level of occupational aspiration is an important influence on both the level of educational achievement and the level of subsequent occupational achievement. Kuvlesky and Bealer,[16] also rural sociologists, do not feel that the relationship between occupational achievement and occupational aspiration is quite that strong, but do believe that a relationship does exist. Therefore, the kinds of achievements experienced in training can affect aspirations which in turn can affect occupational achievements after training on the job. Incidentally, the work of Kuvlesky at Texas A. & M. on aspirations and occupational attainments of rural youth is of major significance to the literature of the field of rural occupational behavior. Since he is a part of this Institute program and will doubtless discuss his research, it will not be discussed much in this paper.

Some of the work of Katona[17] relates to this concept of aspiration and achievement. He showed that aspirations grow with achievement and decline with failure. This kind of pattern is seen with youth from environments which have precipitated failure in many activities, namely, the environment in which many of our disadvantaged live. Both from the Maslow theory point of view, where behavior in disadvantaged environments is felt to be prompted often by the lowest levels of need satisfaction, and from the aspiration-achievement point of view, it is not unexpected that much of the work-related behaviors of the disadvantaged are only diffusely goal-directed and lacking in real thrust. For example, in one report by Morse and Weiss[18], it was shown that unskilled workers constituted the occupational groups with the lowest percentage who would continue to work even if they didn't have to earn a living. Middle class workers valued work because it gave them a sense of purpose and mode of expression. With more of basic life needs met, the middle class person is often in a position to feel motivational needs of a higher level on the Maslow hierarchy than unskilled workers who

are more often not middle class and, in fact, often disadvantaged. This same pattern holds true across race in assessing occupational behavior. For example, a study by Rocha[19] related to the satisfaction derived from the early labor market experiences of a sample of vocational school graduates. He found that 74 percent of the satisfied blacks cited economic reasons as the basis of their job satisfaction, but only 35 percent of the satisfied whites; on the other hand, 57 percent of the satisfied whites derived their main satisfaction from the nature of the work, whereas, only 9 percent of the satisfied blacks cited this reason. In addition, all of the blacks dissatisfied with their jobs listed economic reasons for their dissatisfaction, compared with 20 percent of the dissatisfied whites; 60 percent of the dissatisfied whites found their dissatisfaction in the work and 20 percent in factors related to human relations. There is considerably more evidence in the research literature which points out that the job related behaviors of lower socio-economic people relate to the satisfaction of such needs, it is no wonder that these factors emerge strong in the job motivations of lower socio-economic persons.

The current author[20] carried out an extensive research project on rural low skill workers in South Carolina. He found that the rural low-skilled worker places great emphasis in job acceptance on security, pay and adequacy of work conditions. All of these would be characterized as needs relating to the low end of the Maslow hierarchy and needs not related to personal achievement and self-satisfaction.

At this point it is necessary to add to our theory the work of Fred Herzberg at Case-Western Reserve in Cleveland. Herzberg has emerged in recent years as one of the most widely known job motivation theorists. His theory coincides well with the general Maslow theory. Herzberg believes that there are two factors involved in the motivation of workers. He calls these factors the motivators and the maintenance factors. The motivators are in fact those conditions which induce motivated behavior and only those factors of a job which internally relate to the work. They include achievement, satisfaction, sense of responsibility, identity with the job, recognition, etc. They are forces which impact directly on the internal or psychological states of the worker. The maintenance factors are not motivational in effect but do set up the conditions within which motivation is possible. The maintenance factors are those which relate not to the internal states of the worker, but to the external states and include such factors as working conditions, interpersonal relationships, pay, employer policies, supervision, fringe benefits, etc. The maintenance factors do not motivate, but if they are adequately cared for in the work situation, the worker is predisposed to be motivated. In other words, the maintenance factors are the basic prerequisites to motivation on the job. The theory goes on to say that the deterioration of the maintenance factors in work environment will create a vacuum situation which will prevent the motivators from operating within the person. However, if the maintenance factors are adequately met, any increase in them will not necessarily cause additional motivation. Under the condition of adequate maintenance factors, the worker is free to be motivated; but motivation will derive itself from internal need satisfaction, not external need satisfaction.

When one studies carefully what Herzberg is saying, he sees that it makes much sense. The relationship to the Maslow theory becomes clear

as well. The higher one proceeds up the Maslow hierarchy, the more internal becomes the need fulfillment. The lower levels of need in the hierarchy relate very much to man's external needs and the progression upward is continutally more internal in nature. Before the truly internal needs of the Maslow model can be met, the lower order needs, like the Herzberg maintenance factors, must be met first.

The application of this theoretical framework to behavior on the job of the new labor market entrant is somewhat direct. It is shown most vividly when the labor market behavior of the disadvantaged is studied as shown above in the job-seeking behavior of the rural study in South Carolina. A study by Lipset and Malm[21] showed that the first job taken upon labor market entry was often the first job found and this was especially true for the lower socio-economic wage earners. In other words, the needs for income impact more strongly at the start of a career, especially when one doesn't have much money. You cannot psychologically be selective, for the lack of fulfillment of lower order needs precludes this luxury. In a Ginzberg[22] study of boys in New York, it was found that steady work was an occupational goal more often sought by lower socio-economic youth than by higher socio-economic youth. Miller[23] states that pay and job security are apparently the most significant aspects of the evaluations of jobs by working class youth.

What we have tried to do in the past few pages is to point out that an understanding of work-related behavior must be built upon an understanding of motivation and its bases. It would be possible to document various forms of behavior that the labor market entrant exhibits. But behavioral styles or response modes differ in various regions of the country, from rural to urban, by age and socio-economic level, etc. It seemed to the present author that a rather succinct discussion of motivation theory as a base upon which to understand behavior when accounted would be of more long-range value. What may appear as haphazard behavior on the part of many youth may in fact be the acting out of basic needs in their own individual styles. While needs are somewhat consistent across groups, styles of need fulfillment may vary both individually and collectively. Levels of aspiration, levels of achievement, job search, geographic mobility, occupational mobility, etc., are all fit topics for discussion. But without some understanding of motivational dynamics, any discussion of them would be descriptive in nature rather than analytic in nature. Of what real value is it to tally the behaviors of youth unless we also want to understand them so that they can be changed, reinforced, upgraded, or left to themselves.

Attitudes

To this point we have shown that the personality system is indeed responsive to change and we have looked at the basic thrust behind behavior, namely, motivation. But we have not yet touched upon a very basic consideration that relates to behavior in an integral way, namely attitudes. As in our discussion of motivation at a theoretical level with applications suggested, we will do the same in this section

on attitudes. Again, to discuss specific attitudes provides interesting descriptive materials, but to understand the bases and dynamics of attitudes permits the reader to apply this knowledge to a wide variety of training and work-related situations.

Attitudes may be defined as affective orientations to referents. This definition follows the work of Helen Peak of the University of Michigan.[24] What it simply means is that attitudes always pertain to some referent object, situation, place, or person. Attitudes do not exist in isolation or in a vacuum. When we say that "his attitude is poor," we mean that his attitude toward some specific or class of specifics is poor. The word affective in the definition denotes that there is feeling tone to attitudes; in fact, without the dimension of affect, there is no attitude. For example, a worker may dislike a particular aspect of his job. He can be said to have a negative affective orientation to the referent job aspect. We have not spelled out why he has such an attitude, how the attitude may manifest itself in behavior, or how the attitude may be changed. We have merely stated that his attitude is poor.

The concept of attitude should be quite familiar to all of us for it is encountered within ourselves daily and is the subject of much discussion both in training and on the job thereafter. In order to relate attitudes to our purpose here, it is desirable to take a functional approach to the discussion, that is, one related to the purposes attitudes serve. For this we wish to refer to the brilliant definitive work of Daniel Katz, also of the University of Michigan. Katz[25] has shown that attitudes largely serve four basic functions; namely, an adjustment or utilitarian function, an ego-defensive function, a value-expressive function, and a knowledge function. When viewed from this approach, the purpose of attitudes becomes clear and the dynamics that evoke attitudes can be recognized with the process of change specified. It serves our purpose here to discuss this functional approach in some detail.

First, the adjustment or utilitarian function of attitudes follows from the idea that the development and maintenance of certain attitudes serve useful purposes to the individual. For example, it is of value to me to have a positive attitude toward occupational education for I find myself earning much of my living from work related to the field. If I had a negative orientation toward occupational education, my personality system would exhibit tension from the dissonance created by the fact that I work in areas toward which I have negative attitudes. Thus, I would manifest conflict which is unhealthy to the process of growth within myself and would therefore affect my motivation. Another example relates to the worker who doesn't like parts of his job, mentioned above. Since he is working at that job, but since he does not like much of the job, he has a state of dissonance within himself. He will attempt to relieve this dissonance in many ways--ways largely determined by the strength of the dissonance which is a function of the unpleasantness of the negative affect. He may attempt to reduce the dissonance through withdrawal by absenteeism or getting ill on those days when he will concentrate on the disliked parts of the job. He may choose to show that the job is not instrumental to his reaching his desired life goals by not applying

himself and not doing the expected work of the job. Many particular styles of behavior are possible to this worker to reduce his dissonance including withdrawal or complaining, etc. The adjustment function of attitudes is based upon the fact that most individuals develop attitudes to maximize satisfaction and rewards in the environment and minimize dissatisfaction and penalties. Such attitudes depend on past and present perceptions of the utility of the attitudinal referent. Simply stated, one has a good feeling toward helpful objects or situations and a poor feeling toward hindrances or blocks.

The next points to be made arehow to arouse such attitudes for positive effect and how to change such attitudes if they are not conducive to the proper health and growth of the individual, in our case the dissatisfied worker. To arouse such attitudes the supervisor or his former vocational counselor to whom he may have turned or in whom he may have confided has to activate relevant needs in the individual in question so that the referent (the job routines) is perceived as good for or consistent with his known objectives, whatever they may be, as a function of his level of motivation. This may imply that it might even be necessary to assist him in modifying these objectives if possible, so that his work activities are more clearly seen as related to what he needs. The important point is, however, that he himself must perceive the utility of the job activities to maintaining that job and not merely be told of its importance. If he is merely told of its importance without his actually perceiving its importance, further dissonance could be created and new negative defensive attitudes could develop to reinforce the former negative attitude. Should this happen to this worker, attitude change will necessarily even be more difficult to effect. To change adjustment or utilitarian attitudes, it is necessary that the attitudes and their related behavior no longer provide the satisfaction they once did, or that the goals and objectives of the individual be modified to such an extent that the attitudes do not serve useful functions. Obviously punishment for his negative behavior will not result in the desired change, but may further generalize the negative attitude toward work in general.

The second function that Katz ascribes to attitudes is referred to as the ego-defensive function. In this case the attitude arises from within the individual and attaches itself to a convenient external referent. Within the adjustive function, the attitude arises from the external referent directly. Therein is the essential difference between these first two functions and a difference that is critical to the arousal or change of such attitudes. In the example of the defensive attitude the individual is attempting to protect (defend) himself from acknowledging certain truths about himself or certain external realities. It is a mechanism that allows the individual to live with himself more comfortably. The well-known defense mechanisms of projection, rationalization, over-compensation and so on are good examples of behavioral components of such attitudes. Our worker who hates certain job routines and therefore avoids them and refuses to acknowledge their value to him, may be doing so not in a uniquely utilitarian sense as previously described, but rather in a defensive sense. He may know that those aspects of the job demand more skill in him than he has. He may know of certain basic skill weaknesses within himself which will be manifested to himself

and to others in the work environment. Thus the problem is within himself in terms of certain skill weaknesses and therefore, he attacks those job activities in a negative way, refusing to acknowledge their importance, and thereby defending his ego from failure in something important. Certain job routines therefore become the referent of the negative attitude only because they are a convenient outlet for building one's own defenses about some inherent personal weaknesses.

It follows that the mechanisms of defensive attitude arousal and change should be different from those of the adjustment or utilitarian type of attitude. In this case, Katz points out, the major mechanism of arousal is frustration. For our purposes it would be a rare case in which we would want to arouse ego-defensive attitudes in vocational students or in workers with whom we may be related. For the very nature of such attitudes is to protect the ego from reality, and flight from reality is hardly a worthwhile objective. More often, we may want to change such attitudes in order that such persons may implement their growth and acquire through sound experiences those things necessary to their vocational and occupational development. Changing such defensive attitudes is difficult, indeed, because the development of stronger ego-defensiveness is a real possibility.

The basic mechanisms of such change involve removing the threat which is causing the defensive attitude and helping the individual to acquire insight into his defense system. In the case of the dissatisfied worker, again, perhaps the root of his problem lies in his inability to handle one basic routine of the job. It might be in his case, that additional job training in his area of inadequacy will remove the threat and thereby reduce the negative attitude toward the job. When he realizes why he hated certain job routines, he will be better equipped to handle similar problems in the future. Had no effort been made toward changing this defensive attitude, with his getting fired as a result, the negative attitudes of the worker might have been heightened and he may have even lowered his occupational aspirations from his achievement frustrations.

The third function to be discussed here is called by Katz the value-expressive function. In this case the individual adopts attitudes consistent with his personal value system and consonant with his self concept. Unlike the defensive attitudes which protect the ego from itself, the expressive attitude manifests the ego to itself. The individual not only gives a clearer picture of himself to himself and to others, but he reinforces values he cherishes or wishes to be known. Value-expressive attitudes are critical to sound mental health and maturity. They are the mirror of the personality and serve most useful purposes. To the vocational educator the expression of such attitudes by students ought to be viewed with keen interest, since they may help unravel the mystery of the behavior of many students and trainees. In the case of our dissatisfied worker, his dislike may be a reflection of his distrust of authority, as reflected in his particular superior whom he may perceive as unfriendly and impersonal and unfair in his evaluation of this worker.

There certainly may be alternative explanations of why this worker dislikes parts of his job, but the important point to be made is that such

behavior does not occur in a vacuum. The identification of and understanding the dynamics at the core of the behavior will go a long way to supporting the individual, rather than driving him further away from the occupational objectives you may have once been partly responsible for. It may be very desirable to arouse such attitudes in occupational students not only to evaluate the relevancy of their attitudes, as may be later manifested on a job, but to use them as reinforcements to behavior where possible. The use of appropriate cues will often evoke behavioral expressions of the students. For example, setting up a new policy for evaluation of student efforts may evoke a whole range of reactions from the students from positive to negative. Observation of these reactions may provide cues as to how they will react in job situations when, for example, similar announcements are made for a new merit review system. Arousal of value-expressive attitudes is really not difficult, though often very important or even critical, since such attitudes express that uniqueness to which Allport referred in his definition of personality.

It is possible to change such attitudes and it may often be desirable to do so. The key to change is that of creating, gently and carefully, within the person a discontent either with his self-concept and its values or with his other attitudes, if perceived as inappropriate to his true objectives. In reality, this is what maturing is largely all about.

Finally, the fourth of the functions to be discussed here is the knowledge function. Such attitudes find their dynamics in the need to understand, to know, to have order and clarity, and to reconcile the self with the world. Such attitudes provide foundations upon which to build and function; they provide standards or guides which promote a certain consistency to life. In the case where a vocational graduate perceives a given job as providing a consistent framework upon which he can aspire to greater career objectives, positive affect will be associated with the experiences and knowledges gained on the job, not only in the utilitarian sense, but also for the sake of the knowledge itself. The basis of change of knowledge attitudes lies in creating again a discontent with the current attitudes by providing new and more meaningful experiences. In this way the person realizes the inconsistency of the old attitude in terms of the new knowledge gained and thus modifies his attitudes to resolve the discontent.

We have made an attempt to explain the four basic functions of attitudes and we have tried to explain how to arouse and change them if needed. It is clear that most of what has been said has more application to vocational educators <u>in</u> the educational setting than <u>after</u> the educational setting. Unfortunately too often the graduate upon entry into the labor force does not return for occupational assistance and counseling. It is encouraging to note that more and more follow up on students is being made in an attempt not only to provide feedback to the educational setting, but also to provide continued occupational assistance.

The U. S. Department of Labor[26] has predicted that the average

20-year old will change jobs six or seven times during his remaining work life. I would estimate that this figure is too conservative. Youth early in life upon labor market entry think in terms of "jobs" rather than in terms of "careers." This is even more pronounced in the case of lower socio-economic youth where vision is more directed to the here-and-now-immediate-need gratification than to the future with deferred need gratification. The attitude of youth upon labor market entry is one of immediate reward. Many enter the labor force with heightened aspirations, elevated by their occupational education achievement. These youth often have to face a labor market reality that hits them hard. They often start at entry level jobs and this both in terms of pay and in terms of pride is hard to take. Most learn to cope with the situation after a couple of job changes, and they adapt to the reality. For others this process of adaptation is more difficult; for some it may even be debilitating. But the key to this whole labor market entry dilemma rests in the purposes, functions, and dynamics of attitudes. Many of these youth can be guided in their transition from school to work and in the later transition of job to career.

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS

In this section an attempt will be made to suggest ways whereby vocational education program personnel may obtain feedback on the behavior of their graduates after labor market entry. Unfortunately, there has not been enough follow-up on vocational programs and what follow-up there has been was directed, to a large extent, at variables related directly to training success, e.g., was the graduate placed in a job for which he was trained, are employment and earnings for vocational students greater than for non-vocational students, etc. It should be clear at this point that there are other variables that should be assessed in follow-up that will provide important feedback that can be programmed right into the training and that will assess spin-off benefits to vocational education. Therefore, it is proper that some assessment be made of behavior and psychological . While measurement in these areas is often difficult, there are things that can be done with relative ease which will yield significant information.

General Concepts

We would like to take the position at the outset here that what will be suggested in the following few pages have several criteria as their base. For any type of follow-up to be utilized effectively and regularly, it must be simple to develop, easy to conduct, involve a minimum of cooperation from employers and graduates, and be efficiently organized for ease of analysis and interpretation. It is very true that there are methods and techniques of follow-up which yield highly accurate information but whose complexity is such as to be too much trouble to implement, very costly and require cooperation of outside personnel to such an extent as to be totally impractical. Therefore, the present author feels that the lack of follow-up in many programs is the result of impracticality in systems tried, with failure resulting. The first basic considerations for any follow-up system are efficiency and practicality. Without these no matter how good the system is technically, it stands the chance of eventual failure because it imposes tasks too burdensome on already overburdened personnel. Finally then, it is recognized that what will be suggested here may be criticized by some experts for its lack of comprehensiveness. But it is my opinion that it is better to have a working system that provides some data than to have a beautifully constructed system whose complexity precludes its use with the result that no data are collected.

There are several general principles that should be mentioned here before any discussion of specific techniques. Practicality is the first real consideration, but beyond that there are others too. What we will be discussing here, it must be remembered, is not how to evaluate programs. Rather we will be discussing some techniques to help better understand the early labor market behavior of graduates. Such information should provide guidance to future program implementation. In a real sense we are talking about some applied research on graduates.

Therefore, evaluation is not the purpose; information is the purpose. Consequently, the second major principle of concern is that the data you will collect should be designed for informative purposes and you should have the freedom to seek out only those bits of data you are really interested in. This relates very much to the concept of practicality, but carries it one step further and specifies that freedom from imposed evaluative constraints and flexibility in what you want to find out will go a long way in making your behavioral follow-up system effective, interesting, and useable.

Since evaluation is removed from the context, another consideration relates to sampling rather than following up every graduate. Since your purpose is one of gaining insights, it is reasonable to follow-up selected samples of graduates, and perhaps even to sample program areas or program years. Perhaps a follow-up study every other year or every three years is all that you need for assessing behavioral tendencies of labor market entrants.

A third principle relates to the fact that for effective follow-up to work it must begin well in advance of graduation. So very often follow-up studies are conducted by sending someone a questionnaire several months after graduation and hoping that he completes it. The graduate was unaware that it would be done, is sometimes confused by the questionnaire itself, often does not realize its importance, finds it boring to complete, and thus fails to return it. But why not get the students involved before graduation? Let them know that from time to time you follow up a sample of students so that you can learn about what happens to them. In fact, have practice sessions in completing the questionnaire to be used, obtain early base line data which will be of value such as demographic, motivational, aspirational and attitudinal data, etc. But do it in a context of familiarity, informality, and simplicity. Get your projected sample together informally and let them know of the follow-up and discuss how it will be used, etc. I have seen this attempted and fail miserably because the groups are herded into a classroom and some impersonal totally businesslike individual tells them about it in such a structured fashion that the youth are not impressed and in fact perhaps even turned off. Remember, they will be doing you a favor over the next year or two and you must turn them on to the idea. Get them interested and involved so that when it is time for the follow-up they are ready and willing to cooperate and are fully familiar with the materials to be collected. One additional way to get some of them involved is to allow them to work on the follow-up that you may be working on from a previous class. When they see that non-response or incomplete questionnaires do to a study, they get a good idea of the importance of their role in the follow-up to be made on them. Participation is a key to motivation.

Another principle to keep in mind is that follow-up is often hindered because you can't locate the person to be followed up. It is our practice that whenever we are going to follow up someone, we have the person, prior to leaving the program, complete a card which gives his name, address, phone, and other information on how to reach him. But in addition, we ask for the names and addresses of at least two other relatives that will always know his address. As a precaution, based upon the experience that sometimes

relatives will not give out addresses for one reason or another, have the student also give the name and address of a friend who would know his whereabouts, should he move. With all of this on file, it is probable that you will be able to locate for some time the youth in question.

Another principle of importance is that the fewer outsiders involved, the better. Sometimes it is necessary to have follow-up data supplied by employers, etc. This is difficult to obtain, as all of you know, and often its validity is questionable. Since you are really interested in labor market and job behavior, as little of this type of third-party data as possible is important. You might need their cooperation in real evaluation studies and you do not want to overtax their cooperation. Sometimes it is sufficient to be thankful they hire your graduates, and to ask them for additional help might be too much. Most are concerned with their business and the complexities of running it without having to be concerned with your problems. On the other hand, many employers do want to participate for they realize its value. Only you know this and which employers you will be able to solicit help from.

Specific Measurement Methodologies

Biographical Information. The use of biographical information in the predicting of job success in the world of work is becoming increasingly wide spread. Industries are turning away from testing and toward biographical data analysis. The literature in the field is extremely broad with hundreds of excellent published research studies. Some of the most significant research on the use of biographical data for predictive purposes has been done by the Armed Services. The insurance industry has been one of the pioneers of its development and refinement in the private sector. The basic assumption involved in the use of biographical data for prediction is that what a person has done in the past is a good predictor of what he will do in the future, at least in the near future. While there are exceptions to every rule in the social sciences, this is one rule with relatively few exceptions. Our basic life styles, motivations, attitudes, behavioral tendencies don't change abruptly, but rather gradually, for the most part. Knowing what a person has done will tell you a great deal about what he will do.

How does the use of biographical data fit here? It fits directly because it may be a basis for predicting labor market entry behavior and on-the-job behaviors which could have been affected by the vocational training programs if it were known that they would later take place. If it is possible to identify at the beginning of or early in vocational training how a person most probably will behave later on the job, special efforts may be directed toward him to reinforce his tendencies if the behaviors are positive and to modify the tendencies if negative. Here is where the materials previously discussed in this paper tie in directly, because of the interrelationships among attitudes, motives, and behaviors. Before behaviors can be changed, sometimes it is necessary to modify attitudes and redirect motives. This can only be done by understanding their relevance to the person, hence the need to understand the functions of

attitudes and the structures of motives as was presented earlier.

We stated above that a system must be easy and practical if it is to be used for follow-up. What is easier than to have a person complete a biographical questionnaire upon entry into training, score the quesionnaire, and determine from the scores what likely mode of on-the-job behavior he will pursue. Industry does this frequently in its personnel selection programs: it administers a biographical questionnaire, scores it, and determines whether or not to hire, and if to hire, where to place. But the system would only be easy to use once developed. The problem lies in its development. The construction of a biographical questionnaire which contains items predictive of subsequent labor market behaviors would have to be completed first. Once an instrument of known validity was prepared and cross-validated with various behavioral scoring keys, its subsequent use would be simple. May I suggest that a worthwhile exploratory research project for our state Research Coordinating Units would be an attempted construction of a labor-market behavior predictive biographical instrument. If one were developed that had predictive validity, its use would be phenomenal. The basic development model would be the correlating of the biographical items with known behaviors derived from follow-up studies in process. I do think this idea ought to be pursued, because the developed instrument would contain all of the principles I listed above: practical, simple, involving a minimum of outside cooperation, and highly informative. In a genuine sense, it isn't a follow-up method, but it is a method to predict behaviors that you do follow-up. Its successful use would allow you to program accordingly for individual students or groups.

Behavioral Measures. Follow-up here ought to document how the youth approached labor market entry, how he sought employment,problems he had, what jobs he has had, descriptions of the job and work context, how he feels he is doing, and those kinds of things that you need to know or are interested in. You should be able to get a good idea of what the youth has done, how well he feels he is doing, and how the youth utilizes the elements learned in training. The mastery of skills in training is no guarantee of their successful utilization after training. We need to know what happens. This can be done by a simple pre-tested questionnaire, or by an interview which may even be a phone interview, if the youth expects the follow-up to take place. It need not be extremely involved, but rather simple, precise, and to the point. In utilizing questionnaires sent to the youth, non-respondents ought to be followed up by a telephone call and interview, if necessary. Your object is to determine what the youth has done since training in order to decide whether or not program additions, deletions, or changes should be made. Remember, this is not a cumbersome process, for it is done only on an adequately representative sample, and not every year, if difficulties do not permit.

Data of extreme clarity and preciseness can also be obtained from employers who are known to be cooperative, as discussed above. Additional data may be collected from parents, should this be feasible. Again, it is my firm conviction that keeping the follow-up simple is critical to its being executed regularly and properly with complete analysis of the data for program feedback. Again, I would suggest that the RCU of your state be contacted for assistance in developing the follow-up instruments. Once they

are prepared and pre-tested, their use can be routine.

Psychological Measures. Here things become a little more complicated, but I will adhere to my principles of simplicity and practicality. You may not really be interested in post-training psychological measures, but I think you should be, simply because of those interrelationships we pointed out above among attitudes, motives, and behaviors.

Here again, the main problem is one of instrument development and not administration. I would like to suggest for consideration the development of a self-report instrument to measure aspirations, perceived achievement level, expectation levels, work-related attitudes, and work-related motivation. Here, I'm sure, assistance in the development would have to come from professionals in the field of tests and measurement. But I feel confident that brief, simple, and informative scales could be constructed which would give basic feedback about how the person thinks and feels about work in general and his place in the world of work specifically. The point I'm suggesting here is that valuable feedback information could easily be obtained on post-training attitudes and motives as well as on post-training behaviors. Too often we concentrate on what people do after training and not on why they do it. It may be well that your psychological feedback data could best be made by interview of a representative sample of your follow-up sample on which you not only have biographical inputs but also behavioral data. The only caution to keep in mind is not to limit your sampling so much as to end up with only case data which cannot be generalized.

GENERAL SUMMARY

In this paper we have tried first to present data on labor market entry and behavior; second, to present some psychological theory which will be helpful in trying to understand both training and post-training behavior; and finally, to suggest a general framework within which simple follow-up could be effected. Perhaps the reader now has more questions than answers. But answers will never be sought unless questions are raised. We all know that it isn't possible in a paper as brief as this one had to be to provide all the answers. At best, all we can hope to do is to provide some insights which will stimulate both a desire to learn more and a base from which to study and proceed. This we hope we have accomplished. Our tasks in vocational education are indeed great and important. The total manpower budget on the federal level alone exceeds 2 billion dollars annually. When one adds all the state and local monies to this, one sees an effort of great magnitude. In addition, experts tell us that only one in five youth graduate from a four-year college. What about those other four out of five? Some will not enter the labor force, but a large percentage will. These will need, to a large extent, to acquire occupationally related skills in order to make it in our increasingly technological world of work. It is with these that we are concerned and they probably represent the majority of our youth. Again, not all will participate in the kinds of efforts within which we are engaged. But those that do have a right to know that what is being done for them is consistent with their post-training labor market needs and behaviors. An ongoing analysis of these behaviors will go a long way toward keeping programs relevant, responsive, and flexible. Accountability in education is a big word these days. If support for our efforts is to continue to grow, we must continue to structure our efforts toward the greatest success possible. This will come if we know where we stand, and post-training behavior will often determine our successes. Not to be concerned with what happens after training is analogous to the surgeon who sews up the wound, but provides no follow-up.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth, U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1969, p. 181.

[2] Experimental and Demonstration Project for Rural Workers, Final Report, by the Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Alabama, 1968.

[3] Vera Parrella, Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts, October, 1968, Special Labor Force Report No. 108, U. S. Department of Labor, 1969.

[4] J. Champagne and R. Prater, Teenage Employment, A Study of Low Income Youth in Houston, Texas, Center for Human Resources, University of Houston, 1969.

[5] Max Eninger, The Process and Product of T & I High School Level Vocational Education in the United States: The Product. Pittsburgh: American Institute for Research, 1965.

[6] Jacob Kaufman, Occupational Training Needs for Youth, Journal of Human Resources, Supplement, 1968.

[7] Ibid., p. 129

[8] Sar Levitan and Garth Mangum, Federal Training and Work Programs in the Sixties. Ann Arbor: Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1969, p. 139.

[9] Alice Kidder, Interracial Comparisons of Labor Market Behavior, Doctoral Dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1967.

[10] Op. Cit., p. A-13.

[11] Charles H. Rogers, et al., Teenage Unemployment in Two Selected Rural Counties in the South. Raleigh: Center for Occupational Education, North Carolina State University, 1969.

[12] Gordon Allport, Personality: A Psychological Interpretation, New York: Holt, 1937, p. 48.

[13] Gordon Allport, "Motivation in Personality," Psychological Review, Volume 47, 1940, page 545.

[14] J. Atkinson and N. Feather. A Theory of Achievement Motivation. New York: Wiley, 1966.

[15] A. O. Haller. Education and the Occupational Achievement Process in Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty.

[16]W. Kuvlesky and R. Bealer, "On Occupational Aspirations and Job Attainments: A Reply," Rural Sociology, Volume 33, 1968.

[17]G. Katona, "Rational Behavior and Economic Behavior," Psychological Review, Volume 60, 1953.

[18]Nancy Morse and R. Weiss, "The Function and Meaning of Work and the Job," American Sociological Review, Volume 20, 1955.

[19]J. Rocha. The Differential Impact of an Urban Labor Market Upon the Mobility of White and Negro Potentially Skilled Workers. University of Iowa doctoral dissertation, 1966.

[20]J. Champagne. The Recruitment of Southern Unskilled Workers. Houston: Center for Research in Businss and Economics, University of Houston, 1967.

[21]S. Lipset and F. Halm, "First Jobs and Career Patterns," American Journal of Economics and Sociology, Volume 14, 1955.

[22]E. Ginzberg. Occupational Choice: An Approach to a General Theory. New York, Columbia, 1951.

[23]S. Miller, "The Outlook of Working Class Youth," in Blue Collar World, edited by A. Shostak and W. Gomberg. Englewood Cliffs: Prentics-Hall, 1964.

[24]Helen Peak. Attitudes and Motivation. In Nebraska Symposium on Motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955.

[25]Daniel Katz, "Functional Approach to the Study of Attitudes," Public Opinion Quarterly, Volume 24, 1960.

[26]Job Changing and Manpower Training, Manpower Report No. 10, U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1964.

READING LIST

(The following references in some way relate to the materials presented in this paper and are offered here as a help to further investigation.)

Allport, G., Personality: a psychological interpretation. New York: Hold, 1937.

Allport, G., Motivation in personality: reply to Mr. Bertocci. Psychological Review, 1940, 47, 533-554.

Allport, G., Becoming, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955.

Allport, G., Personality and social encounter. Boston: Beacon Press, 1960.

Allport, G., Pattern and growth in personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.

Allport, G., The trend in motivational theory. In Birney, R. and Teevan, R., (eds.), Measuring human motivation. New York: Van Nostrant, 1962.

Arnstine, B., Role of attitudes in schooling. Educational Forum, 1967, 31, 225-232.

Atkinson, J., Motives in fantasy, action and society. New York: Van Nostrant, 1958.

Atkinson, J. & Feather, N. A theory of achievement motivation. New York: Wiley, 1966.

Baron, Harold and Hymer, Bennet. "The Negro Worker in the Chicago Job Market," Employment Service Review, (August, 1966), 32-4.

Bendix, R., Lipset, S.M., and Malm, F. T. "Social Origins and Occupational Career Patterns," Industrial and Labor Relations Review, Vol. 7, (1954), .246-61.

Berdie, R. and A. Hood. Decisions for tomorrow. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1965.

Bienstock, Herbert. "Realities of the Job Market for the High School Dropout," Daniel Schreiber, (ed.), Guidance and the School Dropout, Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964, 84-108.

Bogan, Forrest A. "Employment of School Age Youth, October, 1965," Monthly Labor Review, (July 1966), 739-43. (Also U. S. Dept. of Labor Special Labor Force Report, No. 68.)

Borislow, B., Self-evaluation and academic achievement. J. Counseling Psychology., 1962, 9, 246-254.

Brodie, T. Attitude toward school and academic achievement. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964, 43, 375-378.

Brown, J. Motivation of behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

Caplan, Nathan. Job Holding Among Negro Youth, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Center for Group Dynamics, 1967.

Carmical, L., Characteristics of achievers and underachievers of a large senior high school. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964, 43, 390-395.

Caro, F. G. Paths Toward Adulthood: A Study of Post High School Activities. Kansas City, Missouri: Community Studies, Inc., Dept. of Social Problems and Education, 1965.

Caro, F. G. and C. T. Pihlblad, "Aspirations and Expectations: A Re-examination of the Bases for Social Class Differences in the Occupational Orientations of Male High School Students," Sociology and Social Research, Vol. 49, (1965), 465-75.

Carter, H. Vocational interests and job orientation. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1944.

Champagne, J. The Attitudes and Motivations of Southern Unskilled Workers. S. C. Committee for Technical Education, Columbia, 1966.

Champagne, J. A Conceptual Model for the Evaluation of Changes in selected Personality Variables through Occupational Education. A paper presented at the National Seminar on Research in Evaluation of Occupational Education, Raleigh, North Carolina, 1968.

Champagne, J. Recruitment of Southern Unskilled Workers. Center for Research in Business and Economics, University of Houston, 1968.

Champagne, J. and R. Prater. Teenage Employment: A Study of Low Income Youth in Houston, Texas: Center for Human Resources, University of Houston, 1969.

Chapin, Arthur. "The Counselor and the Negro Student," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Vol. 10, No. 4, (December, 1966), 5-7.

Cofer, C. and H. Appley. Motivation: theory and research. New York: Wiley, 1964.

Coleman, James, et al. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Washington, D. C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Government Printing Office, 1966.

Duncan, Beverly, "Dropouts and the Unemployed," Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 73, No. 2 (April, 1965), 121-34.

Duncan, Otis Dudley. Patterns of Occupational Mobility Among Negro Men. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Population Studies Center, 1967.

Dynes, R. R., A. C. Clarke, and S. Dinitz. "Levels of Occupational Aspiration: Some Aspects of Family Experience as a Variable," American Sociological Review, Vol. 21 (1956), 212-215.

Ebel, R. Measuring educational achievement. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Edwards, A. Techniques of attitude scale construction. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Eninger, Max U. The Process and Product of T & I High School Level Vocational Education in the United States: The Product. Pittsburg: American Institute for Research, September, 1965.

Epps, Edgar. Motivation and Performance of Negro Students. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, September, 1966.

Ferman, Louis A. Operation Retrieval--Disadvantaged Youth: Problems of Job Placement, Job Creation, and Job Development. Final Report, U. S. Dept. of Labor, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, September, 1967.

Ginzberg, Eli, et al. Occupational Choice: An Approach to a General Theory. New York: Columbia University, 1951.

Gist, N. P. and W. S. Bennett, Jr. "Aspirations of Negro and White Students," Social Forces, Vol. 42 (October 1963), 40-8.

Goldstein, Harold. "The Economic Setting for Vocational Guidance," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Vol. 7, No. 3 (September 1963), 3-6.

Gordon, Robert A. and Margaret S. (eds.) Prosperity and Unemployment, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966.

Gross, E. Sociological approach to the analysis of preparation for work life. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 45 (1967), 416-423.

Gurin, G. Inner City Negro Youth in a Job Training Project. Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1968.

Hall, Oswald and Bruce McFarlane. "Transition from School to Work," Ottawa: Report No. 10, Dept. of Labour, (December 1962).

Haller, A. O. and C. E. Butterworth. "Peer Influences on Levels of Occupational and Educational Aspiration," Social Forces, Vol. 88 (May 1960), 289-95.

Hamel, Harvey R. "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1965," Monthly Labor Review (June 1966), 643-49. (Also U. S. Dept. of Labor, Special Labor Force Report, No. 66).

Harrison, E. C. "Working at Improving the Motivation and Achievement Levels of the Deprived," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. 32 (Summer 1963), 301-7.

Holland, J. Psychology of vocational choice. Waltham: Blaisdell, 1966.

Kahl, Joseph. "Educational and Occupational Aspirations of 'Common Man' Boys," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 23 (Summer 1953) 186-203.

Katona, G. "Rational Behavior and Economic Behavior," Psychological Review, Vol. 60, No. 5 (September 1953), 307-17.

Katz, D. and E. Stolland. A preliminary statement to a theory of attitude structure and change. In S. Koch (ed.) Psychology: Study of a science, Vol. III. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.

Katz, D. The functional approach to the study of attitudes. Public Opinion Quarterly, 24 (1960), 163-204.

Kaufman, Jacob J. Carl J. Schaefer, et al. The Role of the Secondary Schools in the Preparation of Youth for Employment. University Park: Institute for Research on Human Resources, Pennsylvania State University, February, 1967.

Kidder, Alice H. Interracial Comparisons of Labor Market Behavior. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, August, 1967.

Kuvlesky, W. Dr. Kuvlesky has written and published extensively on rural youth. Copies of papers, etc. should be obtained from him at Tesas A. & M. University, College Station, Texas.

Kuviesky, W. and M. Lever. Occupational Status and Orientations of Negro Youth: Annotated Abstracts. Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Texas A.& M. University, 1967.

Kuvlesky, W. and G. Ohlendorf. A Bibliography of Literature on Status Projections of Youth: Volumes I, II, and III. Department of Agricultural Economics and Sociology, Texas A. & M. University, 1967.

Leshner, Saul S. and George Snyderman. "Job Seeking Patterns of Disadvantaged Youth," Employment Service Review, (November 1965), 53-5.

Levitan, Sar and Garth Mangum. Federal Training and Work Programs in the Sixties. Ann Arbour: Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Michigan, 1969.

Lewin, K., Tamara Dembo, L. Festinger, and Pauline Sears. Level of aspiration. In Hunt, J. (ed.) Personality and the behavior disorders, Vol. I. New York: Ronald, 1944.

Lipset, S. M., R. Bendix, and F. T. Malm. "Job Patterns and Entry into the Labor Market," Social Forces, 33 (March 1955), 224-32.

Lipset, S. M. and F. T. Malm. "First Jobs and Career Patterns," American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 14 (1955), 247-61.

Lipsman, C. Maslow's theory of needs in relation to vocational choice by students from lower socio-economic levels. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 15 (1967), 203-288.

Lurie, M. and E. Rayack. "Racial Differences in Migration and Job Search: A Case Study," Southern Economic Journal, 33, No.1 (July 1966), 81-95.

Maslow, A. Motivation and personality. New York: Harper, 1954.

Maslow, A. Deficiency motivation and growth. In Nebraska symposium on motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955.

McCauley, John. Manpower Development in Rural Areas. Employment Service Review (March-April 1968), pp. 10-15.

McClelland, D., J. Atkinson, R. Clark, and E. Lowell. The achievement motive. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953.

McClelland, D. (ed). Studies in motivation. New York: Appleton-Century-Crosts, 1955.

McClelland, D. Some social consequences of achievement motivation. In Nebraska Symposium on Motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955.

McClelland, D. The measurement of human motivation: an experimental approach. In Anastasi, Anne, Testing problems in perspective. Washington: American Council on Education, 1965.

Middleton, R. and C. M. Grigg. "Rural-Urban Differences in Aspiration," Rural Sociology, 24 (December 1959), 347-54).

Morse, Nancy and Robert Weiss. "The Function and Meaning of Work and the Job," American Sociological Review, 20 (April 1955) 191-8.

National Committee on Employment of Youth. Getting Hired, Getting Trained--A Study of Industry Practices and Policies on Youth Employment. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

Peak, Helen. Attitudes and motivation. In Nebraska Symposium on Motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1955.

Perrella, V. Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts, October 1968. Special Labor Force Report No. 108, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, 1969.

Piker, Jeffry. Entry into the Labor Force. Ann Arbor: Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Michigan, 1968.

Quirk, Cathleen and Carol Sheehan, eds. Research in Vocational and Technical Education. Proceedings of a Conference, Madison: University of Wisconsin, Center for Studies in Vocational and Technical Education, 1967.

Roe, Anne. Psychology of occupations. New York: Wiley, 1956.

Roe, Anne and M. Siegelman. Origin of interests. Washington: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964.

Rocha, Joseph R., Jr. The Differential Impact of an Urban Labor Market upon the Mobility of White and Negro Potentially Skilled Workers. The University of Iowa, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, 1966.

Rogers, Charles, et al. Teenage Unemployment in Two Selected Rural Counties in the South. Raleigh: Center for Occupational Education, North Carolina State University, 1969.

Schreiber, Daniel, (ed.) Guidance and the School Dropout. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964.

Sears, Pauline. Problems in the investigation of achievement and self-esteem motivation. In Nebraska Symposium on Motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1957.

Sheppard, Harold L. and A. Harvey Belitsky. The Job Hunt. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1966.

Sherif, Carolyn, M. Sherif and R. Nebergall. Attitude and attitude change. Philadelphia: Saunders, 1965.

Sherif, M. and C. W. Sherif (eds.) Problems of Youth: Transition to Adulthood in a Changing World. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co.,1965.

Shill, J. Educational Aspirations, Expectations, and Abilities of Rural Male High School Seniors in Mississippi. Social Science Research Center, Mississippi State University, 1968.

Shostak, Arthur B. and William Gomberg (eds.) Blue Collar World, Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

Stewart, J. and E. Lynch. Work-Adjustment Problems of Employed Low-Income Workers. United Community Services, Boston, 1968.

Taylor, R. and S. Bondy. Interest patterns of male trade and industrial and collegiate technical graduates. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1966, 15, 57-60.

Waldman, Elizabeth. "Employment of High School Graduates and Dropouts in 1966," Monthly Labor Review, (July 1967), 15-21. (Also U.S. Department of Labor Special Labor Force Report, # 85.)

_____ Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth. U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

_____ Manpower Reports of the President. U. S. Department of Labor, Washington.

_____ Vocational Education, Report of a Conference Sponsored by the Brookings Institution. Published as a supplement to the Journal of Human Resources, Vol. III, 1968.

_____ The People Left Behind. A Report by the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, 1967.

_____ Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report by the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, 1968.

_____ Poverty Amid Plenty, The American Paradox. The Report of the President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs, 1969.

_____ Experimental and Demonstration Project for Rural Workers, Final Report. Tuskegee Institute, Alabama, 1968.

_____ Vocational Education, the Bridge between Man and His Work. Report of the Advisory Council on Vocational Education, 1968.

Banquet Presentation

Speaker: Dr. Duane Nielsen
U. S. Office of Education

The following is a brief summary of the illustrated speech delivered by Dr. Nielsen on Thursday night, July 30, to participants in Institute IV.

Using transparencies, Dr. Nielsen emphasized the need for programs of vocational education for the disadvantaged as indicated in the report released by the National Task Force on Vocational Education and similar policy guidelines. The need for specially designed programs for specific groups of the disadvantaged was stressed.

Dr. Nielsen structured his comments around the experiences which the participants had encountered during the two-week Institute. His visits to the small-group sessions during the Institute formed a basis for articulating national policy and needs with local effort and activities. This speech aided participants in synthesizing their Institute experiences.

(A sample of Task Force Group Report)

TASK FORCE GROUP NO. 4

The positions stated in this report were seldom agreed upon unanimously, but the interaction and involvement that was instigated by our group meetings and the exchange of information and the exposure to each other's problems were probably the most beneficial aspect of this institute. The diversity of our groups, the differing populations, and local problems of the areas in which we work, along with the varying state and local rules, regulations and laws under which we operate, all of these factors would make it impossible to have unanimous decisions. Through involvement, interaction, and cooperative effort, we have been able to agree upon several criteria and strategies, at least in theory, as being helpful for working with the disadvantaged.

Miss Barbara Kemp, in her presentation, gave us the definition used in the 1968 Amendments for disadvantaged persons. The definition was stated as follows:

> The term "disadvantaged persons" means persons who have academic, socioeconomic, cultural, or other handicaps that prevent them from succeeding in vocational education or consumer and homemaking programs designed for persons without such handicaps, and who for that reason require specially designed educational programs or related services.

Our group spent a considerable amount of time discussing and analyzing this definition and decided that the emphasis in this definition is on the ability of the individual to succeed in a regular vocational education program rather than on the reason for being disadvantaged. Group IV noted that the term "disadvantaged" refers not to persons who have academic, socioeconomic, cultural, or other handicaps, but only to persons who cannot succeed in vocational programs because of these handicaps. We also agreed with Miss Kemp that instruction should be individualized wherever and whenever possible rather than trying to separate disadvantaged students into special classes. Therefore, our group agreed upon the priorities suggested by Miss Kemp in her presentation.

First, integrate students into regular classes if at all possible and give them ancillary services as needed. Second, if additional help is needed, give special help in classes after school or during the summer, but keep students in the regular school program. Third, if other solutions seem impractical, then set up special programs during regular school hours for disadvantaged students.

After adopting a definition for the term "disadvantaged," we turned our attention to trying to identify this group. Through the presentations of the institute speakers and our group discussions, we arrived at the following list of characteristics for disadvantaged youth:

1. Poor self concept--not exposed to success models.
2. Inadequately developed social skills.
3. Below age level in academic achievement.
4. Cannot succeed in regular school programs.
5. High aspirations -- low expectations.
6. Often financially poor.
7. Parents often unemployed or underemployed.

After hearing the presentations, we decided that there were more similarities than differences between disadvantaged persons regardless of race, ethnic group, or place of residence. However, it was also concluded by our group that the rural disadvantaged had the following characteristics unique to them as a group:

1. Individualism, closely guarded.
2. Dispersed and scattered -- not well organized.
3. Out of touch with the outside world.
4. Lack knowledge of services available.
5. Distrust of outsiders.
6. Distrust of education and government agencies.

Our group also discussed types of teaching methods and techniques which could be used to teach the disadvantaged. We thought Dr. Johntz gave us some good strategies for teaching the disadvantaged. The techniques and methods he demonstrated should be used in all areas of vocational education including special classes for the disadvantaged, but we did not feel that advanced math had any universal content for the disadvantaged. Our group was also of the opinion that the continuity and evaluation of the project seem rather vague. After discussing Project SEED, we developed the following list of techniques and methods that we thought were relevant for teaching the disadvantaged.

1. Involve students in determining objectives and goals.
2. Individualize teaching -- each student is unique.
3. Structure for success through achievement in a skill or process.
4. Teach so students learn not only by your showing, but by their actually doing.
5. Use conversation and discussion to build verbal and other communication skills.
6. Use exploratory and person-centered units of instruction.
7. Use short lessons with immediate goals.
8. Use relevant audio-visual aids such as films, tapes, recordings, flannel boards, flip charts, etc.
9. Work with other teachers to develop understanding and cooperation.
10. Involve the family in the teaching-learning process.
11. To participate directly or indirectly in the recruitment, guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-up of students.

By utilizing these techniques and methods, we felt that teachers would be more successful in teaching the disadvantaged. We think teachers should know, understand, and respect the language and culture of the disadvantaged; however, we also believe the teacher should maintain his own identity and provide a model of the language and culture that is acceptable to most employers.

It is our belief that the educational program should be relevant to real life and that the teacher should point out the practical significance of school work and use practical examples for mathematics and other subjects whenever possible. Teachers should also constantly strive to provide "learning to learn" experiences that develop positive attitudes and self-realization.

The presentation on innovative techniques used in New Jersey gave us several ideas that we felt could be used in vocational education in general. We were especially interested in the description of how skill centers and mobile units are used in the state of New Jersey. As a result of the presentations and our discussions, we believe more emphasis should be placed on work-study and cooperative programs for the disadvantaged.

We also believe that teachers of the disadvantaged need several special abilities listed below:

1. Must love people and have a sincere desire to help them as fellow human beings.
2. Need to possess a maximum of warmth, sencerity, genuineness, and empathy.
3. Need to possess a commitment, dedication, and a willingness to become involved.
4. Need positive perception of self-confidence.
5. Need positive perception of others--nonpatronizing attitude.
6. Need to perceive the needs of the disadvantaged.
7. Need to understand the problems of the disadvantaged and have the ability to cope with them.
8. Need ability to create environment conducive to learning.
9. Need ability to individualize instruction.
10. Need to understand and be willing to accept a large part of the guidance functions for the disadvantaged.
11. Need the ability and willingness to work with students both inside and outside class.
12. Need knowledge of,work experience, and competency in subject matter in addition to understanding the field of vocational education in general.

Not every teacher will possess all of the traits mentioned above, but he should possess most of them. The teacher should also be flexible and adaptable and be willing to examine his personal strengths and weaknesses as they affect his teaching so he can modify his behavior and create a better teaching-learning environment.

In establishing programs for the disadvantaged, our group felt that work-study or cooperative type programs indicated more prospects for success than other educational programs. In placing disadvantaged students in a cooperative education program the instructor should select training stations and supervisors who understand the program and who are willing to act as trainers. The instructor must realize that placing disadvantaged students on the job requires more on-the-job supervision and the students and the job should be carefully matched to increase the chances of success.

In evaluating work-study programs for the disadvantaged, our group felt the evaluation should be based on the work attitudes and skills evidenced by the student on the job. The student's attitude toward work, his ability to work under pressure, and his ability to adjust to work rules--all reflect to what degree he has been able to adjust and adapt to the world of work and thereby become less disadvantaged.

III. REPORTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Reports

Individual Plans of Action

Each participant drafted an individual plan of action. A brief summary of these was presented in the previous chapter. Additional highlights of these plans of action are presented here in a relatively concise manner, and some also appear in the Recommendations section of this chapter.

As previously indicated, most participants began their plans with a brief analysis of their individual situations. Wide variations exist in such cases. However, patterns or commonalities based on principles, techniques, and program design factors did indeed emerge when all individual plans of action were analyzed. Examples of some of these commonalities found in individual plans follow:

1. For rural areas, greater consideration should be given to cooperative use of a centralized facility by two or more school systems, and/or the use of various types of mobile units. Establishment of "district" occupational education centers also was mentioned.

2. The curriculum concept of "experience-discovery" must be emphasized.

3. Vocational planners must maintain awareness of trends among disadvantaged populations, either from agency or secondary data sources, or be prepared to fill gaps in needed data by conducting special surveys to determine occupational patterns and employer needs.

4. Individual plans agreed unanimously that the local vocational teacher was the key to success or failure of any program designed for the disadvantaged. Most plans included in-service training for teachers. Teacher attitude must be attuned to increasing the self-concept of the disadvantaged.

5. Counseling and other measures should focus on improving the self-image of the disadvantaged person.

6. Most participants indicated they would initiate a fact-finding or "bench-mark" study to be used as a point of departure for their programs.

7. Involvement of local citizens by sharing information, soliciting help in recruitment of the disadvantaged into programs, policy and direction setting, etc., were components of some individual plans.

8. Self-concept would be increased by involving the disadvantaged in planning and developing programs for themselves.

9. Periodic reports of curriculum projects would be written for dissemination to students, parents, teachers, counselors, administrators, etc.

10. Parents of disadvantaged students will be informed about programs brought to the school and encouraged to express views about programs. Involvement of the total family should be stressed.

11. Special emphasis should be placed on determining what curriculum consultants are needed and when to schedule their utilization.

12. Train and use curriculum staff personnel who have the same ethnic origin as the disadvantaged in order to facilitate recruitment and counseling.

13. Involve institutions of higher learning for provision of assistance in designing and evaluating curriculums for the disadvantaged.

14. Integrating the vocational content with the general curriculum should always be a prime consideration.

15. The curriculum designer must cause the local administrator to see his superintendency role as being that of a change agent.

16. Disadvantaged students must achieve immediate and frequent success as they move through the curriculum. To do this, the curriculum should be designed in small single-concept units. Rewards and incentives for accomplishments must be geared to the proper level; i.e., candy for achievements of disadvantaged children, coffee or soda-pop parties for individual adult achievements, and "commencement" exercises and rituals for class achievements and larger (course) subject-matter completions.

17. Realistic goal-setting and attainment should be reflected in the curriculum. Disadvantaged students should learn to set and attain goals.

18. The so-called "project method" should be considered from the standpoint of teaching skill acquisition and pride of completion of tasks, or set of tasks.

19. Disadvantaged students should be involved in maturation and managerial skills acquisition through rotation of special assignments such as: tool checker, preventive maintenance worker, roll checker, safety checker, shop foreman, materials checker, etc.

20. Placement of students and trainees on jobs and work-experience situations must be carefully considered as part of the curriculum. Individual counseling for job entrants usually is necessary on a frequent and long-term basis. Employers should be involved long before the student or trainee reaches the job site. Pre-entry employee-employer rapport should receive emphasis as part of the curriculum process.

21. Dropouts are of many types. Most occur before the beginning of grade nine. Identification and retention of potential dropouts requires family and home visits, intensive counseling, proper construction of curriculum units, and frequently, intensive skill training, among other things.

22. The adaptation of individualized or individually prescribed instructional techniques to vocational education curriculums for the disadvantaged needs emphasis.

23. Not only should programs for the disadvantaged be comprehensive as to curriculum content and participant services, the programs likewise should serve all the poor in a given area. However, caution must be exercised not to exclude needy persons from programs merely because they reside just outside arbitrarily designated geographical or political boundaries.

24. Curriculum advisory committee roles should be characterized by objective analysis rather than simple endorsement and superfluous verbal support.

25. Sufficient time for program trainees/participants to explore a number of vocational areas must receive attention in the design of curriculums for the disadvantaged. Too often, especially in some M.D.T.A. and Skill Center programs, little opportunity is allowed the trainees to explore vocational alternatives before becoming "locked-in" to a training course. Job placement and follow-up reports should be used to evaluate this aspect of a curriculum. Re-cycling of trainees should be considered if evaluations reveal that unsound decisions were made concerning career choices.

26. Mobile units warrant consideration for use in remote or rural areas, reservations, and migrant camps. Mentioned by individual institute participants were a "mini-service center" for health services; one in adult basic education; one for elementary shop skills training; and one for office skills training.

27. Although the residential family oriented concept requires comprehensive planning, there is great merit in its use for training because of close-knit family solidarity among the various types of deprived populations.

28. The schools and their vocational curricula do not stand alone; they are integral parts of the communities in which they are found. Job development, industrial progress, community development, and educational improvement all must move in concert.

29. In an effort to reduce dropouts, some consideration may be given to the preparation of resource units for use by elementary teachers that would relate jobs to every-day classroom accomplishments. Also, elementary teachers could be brought to area vocational schools to familiarize them with training programs through which many of their students might go.

30. Home visits and personal contacts should be weighed to determine their usefulness in: (1) recruitment of training program participants, (2) determining detailed characteristics of prospective participants and their awareness of available community and training services, (3) evaluation, and (4) post-training counseling.

31. The cooperative education concept should be considered for use in programs focusing on dropout prone students, and in programs which attempt to alleviate problems surrounding the transition from school to employment.

32. Successful program participants should be encouraged to tell others in their peer groups about the potentialities to be gained from training in curriculums designed for the disadvantaged.

33. Emphasis was placed by many individuals on eliminating traditional "academic" approaches to training. A number of substitute approaches were mentioned, such as: an integrated subject-matter approach; an articulated curriculum approach; an interdisciplinary educational approach; and the career-centered curriculum concept.

34. A theme permeating almost all Institute IV participants' reports was that, to achieve maximum impact and effectiveness, any program designed for any segment of the disadvantaged must involve all the teachers in a system--not just the few who may be particularly sympathetic to the needs of the deprived.

35. Instructional aspects of the curriculum should include: closely spaced cumulative review exercises to enhance retention of that which has been learned; reduced pace of subject-amtter coverage to fit learning patterns; and variation in learning activities to increase attention span.

36. In a number of instances, Institute IV participants planned to select and train disadvantaged persons as field workers (recruiters, counselor's aides, etc.) and instructor's aides.

37. Special emphasis should be given to summer programs for disadvantaged students to supplement instruction received during the regular academic year.

38. Teacher educators who attended Institute IV tended to emphasize measures which would change and improve attitudes held by teachers toward the disadvantaged.

39. Some participants indicated that their plans would include efforts focusing on the development of a "community" awareness, as well as a "career" awareness in the elementary grades.

Group Reports

The six Task Force groups were established with three major objectives in mind. First, the groups were to provide a critical review of formal presentations. Secondly, they were to provide maximum communication among participants and consultants. Third, the groups were organized to discuss the development of formats for vocational education programs for the disadvantaged. For sample Task Force outlines and roster see Appendices D and E .

A leader and a recorder were selected from the participants to provide leadership to each Task Force group. The leaders and recorders were given special instructions before the opening of the Institute. At the close of each working day, staff meetings were held to report the progress of each Task Force group and to provide an opportunity to make new inputs as necessary. At the closing of the Institute, each Task Force made an oral report on their activities at a general session. Institute IV probably had its greatest influence by making most all of the participants aware that persons involved in a wide variety of programs tend to be confronted with identical, or at least similar problems. Discussions among the Task Force groups vivified this awareness and offered opportunities for interaction. For a sample Task Force report see

Conclusions

The Institute's planned purpose was to focus on equipping persons in vocational education leadership positions with knowledge and skills for expanding and improving curriculums to meet the needs of disadvantaged youth and adults in rural areas.

After analyzing participant satisfaction with the Institute, reviewing individual tentative plans of action, and reviewing Task Force reports, it was concluded that the Institute, "Expanding Vocational Education Curriculums to Meet the Needs of Disadvantaged Youth and Adults in Rural Areas," was successful in accomplishing its major purposes, as viewed at this time. However, only a follow-up of the degree of implementation of individual plans in the years ahead will give a true measure of the degree of success attained by the Institute.

Recommendations

Based upon evaluative comments provided by participants, Multiple Institute staff, and experiences of the Institute staff, the following recommendations are made:

1. Consideration should be given to conducting institutes for periods not longer than one week. Institutes of longer duration may find that participants whom they are trying to attract (those in positions to have the most effect on the Institute's purpose) are unable to be away from normal duties for that length of time.

2. Consideration should be given to holding institutes in two phases. The first phase would be conducted as the training phase and the second (perhaps one year later) would be conducted as a phase including the reporting of and re-defining of actions taken by the same participants.

3. The use of small Task Forces should be continued as an effective learning device for participants. However, the requirement of the Task Force producing a written report may not prove to be of much value because diversity of opinions may prevent the reports from containing concrete techniques, solutions, models, strategies, etc.

4. It is recommended that the practice of having each participant develop a tentative plan of action be continued. This should be accomplished in outline form prior to the time of arrival of the participant at the Institute, and the plan would then be expanded during the Institute.

5. It is recommended that participants be selected and committed to attending the Institute before the program is developed so that formal presentations, properly mixed between theory and application, may be adjusted to meet the needs of the highest number of participants.

6. Consideration should be given to conducting additional institutes focusing on designing specific curriculums for the rural disadvantaged, or for targeted populations. These probably would be best arranged on state, district, and local levels, not on regional or national levels.

7. Consideration should be given to obtaining or producing curriculum materials at reading levels corresponding to disadvantaged students' ability levels.

8. Consideration should be given to funding projects in which teachers of the disadvantaged and disadvantaged students are utilized in developing and trying out materials.

9. Consideration should be given to funding a project to study the sequential aspects of vocational-technical curriculum elements so that each year has been a good investment of student time in terms of socialization, self-reliance, and self-actualization which is the opposite of traditional "deferred gratification" concepts.

10. The degree of comprehensiveness with which curriculums for disadvantaged are planned seems to have been the key concept which all Institute participants thought to be most important. The simple model (Income - Input - Output - Outcome) introduced to them early in the Institute aided in specifying and categorizing activities to be conducted in expanding vocational education curriculums for the rural disadvantaged.

However, any model which would order and detail the planning of such programs would suffice. Any models used in such planning should allow for the sequencing of decisions. The overriding question for all participants was: "Taking into consideration the numbers and numerous characteristics of disadvantaged, what kind(s) of vocational education program(s) is (are) needed in my (our) local school system (state), and how can we determine whether our program is effective?" Consequently, it is recommended that programs be designed according to some model which includes the comprehensive and inclusive phases of the above model, and that program budgets reflect such all-encompassing planning.

11. Teacher training to include sensitivity to working with the disadvantaged must be included as an essential element in any program designed to train them.

INSTITUTE SUMMARY

(A Slightly Irreverent Look)

C. Cayce Scarborough *

The program for the Institute seemed well designed to help us meet the objectives. Most of the presenters apparently did what they were asked to do and did the job well. For this seasoned attender of such conferences, it was amazing how many of the speakers sparked thought and reaction. The scheduled time for questions and reactions following each major presentation rather than rushing on to the next speaker was an unusual feature much appreciated by this participant. The Group Task Force idea was also an effective means of getting further exchange of ideas and reactions to the speakers and of adding to these inputs of their own. I don't believe that I have seen all groups work as effectively as the six at this Institute.

But I was not asked to evaluate the Institute but to summarize and synthesize. So, here is about the way that I would give a brief account when I get back home -- if I could have a captive audience as I have here. Since I am one of the many modern advocates of the use of Behavioral Change as a way of measuring outcomes, I would start by describing my return to North Carolina, if I had really made the behavioral changes as a fully dedicated convert of this Institute. Let me try to picture my return to North Carolina.

I would arrive back on the campus of North Carolina State University in a 60 ft., fully equipped, air-conditioned Industrial Training Unit, loaded with S.E.E.D. and Sensory Experience Curriculum Guides for two tribes of Indians, with Red Rasberry from Tupelo to sell the whole thing to my Dean and the Division of Occupational Education in the State Department!

Now, back to the program. Where were we? Oh yes, we had not yet opened the Institute!

After welcome, orientation (two of them; the reason that there were two was that it took one of them to explain why Institute IV was really Institute VII -- or was it vice versa?) and group assignments, we heard the keynote address, "The Changing Educational Needs of People in Rural Areas." Although Dr. Bishop was not here in person, his analysis of the changing rural situation -- people and the economic conditions -- served as a benchmark for later discussions. The proposals for educa-

---

* Dr. Scarborough is Professor and Head of Agricultural Education, Agricultural Education Department, School of Education, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina.

tion are not as clearly defined as was the economic analysis, which would be expected since Dr. Bishop is an economist. In fact, on page 41 of the document from which Dr. Bishop was speaking, he has these two conflicting statements:

> The implications of these changes for educational institutions is less clear. What can, or should, be done and the consequences are not generally agreed upon.
>
> The implications for educational programs are quite clear. The vast majority of the farm youth and of the rural nonfarm youth need general education and occupational and vocational education that is comparable in quality to that received by urban residents.

But we should not expect Dr. Bishop, an economist, to develop a plan for occupational education for the rural areas when we have experts like you. He still made some points that we should consider as we develop occupational education programs -- population changes, for example.

Miss Barbara Kemp, Senior Program Officer, USOE, has caused me trouble in this summary. I have studied my notes carefully, and the best that I can do, for which I apologize to her and to you, is that she is for Vocational Education, feels that everyone else is, and that we should help the disadvantaged without embarrassing them.

Dr. Del Green came up with the notion that occupational education programs for adults should result in higher rate of employment. That doesn't sound new or original, but he cited one program in which 90 percent of those completing the program failed to find employment. He suggested that the Project Director was the KEY to a successful program. (I suppose that means AFTER the program has been funded.)

Dr. William C. Boykin tells it like it is, I think; at least he tells it so that I can understand it. He suggests that we not fall into the habit of grouping all the disadvantaged into one, as to motivation, goals, and values. They are heterogeneous. Oh yes, in his talk, Dr. Boykin mixed in Binet, I.Q. Tests, and Prostitution, and seemed to be against all three!

Now we come to the Star Actor of the Institute. If Jim Wall gives an Emmy for showmanship, here would be the winner! Until this Institute, this old farm boy thought that selling seed was something that was done in a seed store. But Dr. William Johntz really sold S.E.E.D. here in this auditorium on Tuesday afternoon last week! If they don't grow and produce, it will be the fault of these Mississippi State Agronomists! Seriously, Dr. Johntz gave a remarkable demonstration of his teaching method of "Discovery" with some fifth graders following him through some abstract algebra. However, his main point for this Institute was that to help the disadvantaged student change, his self-image had to change. He must see himself as a winner instead of a loser. Most participants seemed dismayed that with all of the efforts involved,

apparently no follow-up beyond the class sessions has been done nor is any being planned. Perhaps this is just as well, if he wants to continue the same success story. He also reminded us that research indicated that students often accomplish about what the teacher expects.

Early on Wednesday morning we learned that Dr. Kuvlesky did not agree with Dr. Johntz either! In fact, he says that all problems of the disadvantaged cannot be solved by a change in self-image, and to work in this context may do more harm than good -- or words to that effect. He reminded us that there are many complex factors impinging upon the disadvantaged youngster, many of which are beyond his control. After making 75 on his test of myths, I listened very closely and feel that his paper has some important implications for anyone interested in working with disadvantaged rural youth.

Let's talk about Dr. Kaufman's presentation and Tupelo at the same time, since the two are synonomous in this Institute. For this participant, the trip to Tupelo was an excellent part of the program. The leaders demonstrated that they knew what was going on in programs other than their own and they recognized their own interdependence. It seems to mee that the elimination of the city limits in their thinking is an idea that many more towns and surrounding areas could use to advantage. The highlights of the trip for me was the first stop at the Day Care Center. Since my wife was involved with a Center for three or four years, perhaps I had a more personal interest. Mrs. Little demonstrated a sound concept of the enormity of the problems but proud of the start being made, aware of the many obstacles, yet to be overcome, encouraging to all. Interestingly enough, listening to discussions on the bus, around the tables in the cafeteria, and in groups, many of you would not agree with me. In fact, some did not think Mrs. Little handled matters well at all, objecting to her telling about the poor home situation of some of the people as she introduced them. To me, she was telling it like it was, and I would guess that none was embarrassed but glad of the opportunity to participate in a going-thing and earn some needed cash. Speaking of aspirations, if you talked to the neatly dressed older girl assistant cook, you heard her say that she was going to college and study some area of dietetics. The boy has aspirations for college too, but not so sure what.

By the way, most participants probably noticed that the Director of the Vo-Tech Center disagreed with Dr. Kuvlesky in stating that they were concerned about training young people only (or largely) for jobs within the home area.

Dr. David Williams gave a well-documented report of the recently completed Project R.E.D.Y. in Illinois. Again, we were reminded that helping any disadvantaged person really becomes a family affair. It was also interesting to note that such a program can be initiated and implemented with relatively little cost beyond the preparation of special materials needed. The problem is to find a vocational teacher with the interest and ability to work with the disadvantaged adult in the rural areas. The other major requirement will be a school administrator who is willing to include the teaching of disadvantaged adults as part of his vocational load.

Although the New Jersey program described by Mrs. Chrystine Shack was not designed for rural areas, the idea could be used as have mobile shops in the past.

The second week was given a good start by another good salesman. Dr. Charles Winn admits dusting off a 100-year-old idea and making it work wonders for youth enrolled in small schools in four western states. Sensory Experience is the name of Dr. Winn's game, and he believes that you can win with his materials. He prefers the real thing for the sensory experience, but if you don't have it, a picture will do the job. I was with him until he substituted a picture for the real thing -- that's overdoing a great idea!

John Peterson and his three Indian friends sparked some reaction from another Indian from the West who did not quite agree with the Choctaw way of doing things. By the way, this Chief Purley would have no trouble selling Indian medicine either, but with the money that he is getting for his training center, I believe that he had better stay with the poverty program!

Dr. Joe Blackbourn gave me a better term than I had been using in describing some of the earlier speakers. He said that the person who looked at himself and liked what he saw was a "fully functioning person." That is a much more sophisticated term than I had been using for these persons. Dr. Blackbourn joins Dr. Johntz and others in taking the positive approach. All of this positive thinking business makes me think of the reply that Ann Landers gave to a young man who wrote her about his girl friend. He listed several things that his girl did, and ended by saying, "What is worse, she seems to have an inferiority complex. What do you advise?" Sad Sam. Ann answered as follows: "Dear Sad, Forget her. She IS inferior!"

But back to the program, where were we? Oh yes, the Industrial Arts Program.

It was good to see everyone happy and jolly and bragging on each other at the faculty meeting that we saw. I have never attended one before that was so harmonious. Glad to know that is the way they are in Mississippi. Sorry that they didn't give the teacher more time, since they all agreed that she was the key (aren't they always?). But one interesting thing is that they were still calling it Industrial Arts. Some of our Industrial Arts people would not agree that anything with no skill could be Industrial Arts. One other note that you may have missed. The superintendent said that he used money to get this innovation, nobody asked for or wanted it before it was started. Also note that the provision was made to give teachers needed SENSORY EXPERIENCE with the tools that she was to help the children use, as well as other aids.

Dr. John Codwell reported on a few of the Rural Education Improvement Projects sponsored by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools.

Dr. Bert Westbrook believes in clear analysis and careful measurement as part of an overall evaluation process. It seems to me that most of us in vocational education are not fully aware of the implications that Vocational Development and Maturity Theories and Concepts have for our occupational education programs, especially as we move to make opportunities available for younger people not yet ready to be training for a job.

Dr. Gene Bottoms told it like it is in Georgia. Apparently some participants did not like the approach. They have gotten some unusually promising results with some pretty tough situations, but of course this does not prove that their approach is better than yours.

Dr. Joe Champagne iterated the numerous problems confronting the young labor market entrant and re-entrant, the psychological factors bearing on motivation and work-related attitudes, and behavioral patterns concerning entry or reentry modes, practices, and experiences. He detailed for us the agency and structural problems faced by the entrant and how he attempts to resolve them. Joe included suggestions as to how educators can help entrants in this period of transition from training to employment. He concluded by suggesting alternatives for continuous evaluation of post-training experiences and problems.

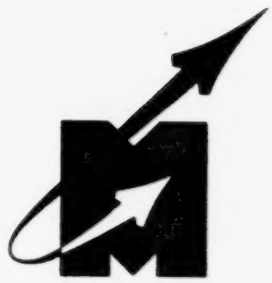
Generally, Institute IV was a huge success because of the many things introduced for our consideration which went beyond the traditional skill training concepts. The detailed considerations of disadvantaged populations, the wide variations of their characteristics and attributes, and how to recruit them into programs, were treated early in the institute as the INCOME phase of our procedural model. The design and interrelationships of program and curriculum elements were treated in the second or INPUT phase of the model. During the third or OUTPUT phase we gave attention to how vocational maturity of trainees can be determined and measured, and what assessments can and should be made immediately upon completion of training. In the fourth and final OUTCOME phase of the procedural model we considered measures of post-training job-seeking and employment behavior, as well as counseling procedures which might reveal retraining needs, problems in relocating and making work adjustments, and patterns of work advancement behavior. The Institute achieved its major aim of expanding our concepts of what should be included in a total or comprehensive curriculum for disadvantaged persons.

APPENDIX A

PROGRAM:

NATIONAL INSTITUTE IV

EXPANDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION CURRICULUMS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH AND ADULTS IN RURAL AREAS



July 20-31, 1970

RESEARCH COORDINATING UNIT
SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH CENTER
MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERISTY

PURPOSE OF INSTITUTE

This Institute is designed to equip persons in vocational education leadership positions with knowledge and skills for expanding and improving curriculums to meet the needs of disadvantaged youth and adults in rural areas. Participants will review and discuss techniques and procedures which could be utilized in curriculum expansion.

OBJECTIVES OF INSTITUTE:

* To develop and/or improve abilities to identify and define the needs of the rural disadvantaged; to develop criteria for categorizing or grouping for training; to discover measures of aspiration levels, life styles; and to develop techniques and procedures for recruitment into and retention in training programs.

* To develop specific content and methods for use in training the rural disadvantaged, to determine prerequisites to occupational training; to discover techniques for articulating elements of training content and methods; to determine techniques for pacing, phasing, and structuring instructional units according to trainee needs.

* To assess changes in attitudes toward work, aspirations, self-esteem; to determine measures for job readiness and procedures for job entry.

* To develop post-training procedures, structures, and relationships necessary for securing satisfactory occupational adjustment and advancement; to determine procedures and measures which indicate need for retraining.

EXPANDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION CURRICULUMS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH AND ADULTS IN RURAL AREAS

PROGRAM

Note: All events will take place in Dorman Hall Auditorium unless otherwise indicated.

Sunday, July 19

Room Assignments
Cresswell Residence Hall

Monday, July 20

8:30	Registration and Welcoming Coffee
10:00	Welcome: Dr. W. L. Giles, President Mississippi State University
10:15	Orientation: Dr. Charles H. Rogers Multiple Institute Coordinator North Carolina State University
10:45	Orientation: Dr. James E. Wall Institute Director
11:15	Assignments to Small Groups
11:45	Lunch
1:30 p.m.	**"The Changing Educational Needs of People in Rural Areas"** Dr. C. E. Bishop, Vice President for Public Services The Consolidated University of North Carolina
2:30	Questions and Reactions Dr. Charles H. Rogers
3:15	Break
3:40	Small Group Orientation and Planning
4:30	Adjournment

Tuesday, July 21

8:30 a.m.	**"Relationship of Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 to Disadvantaged Populations"** Miss Barbara Kemp Senior Program Officer, U. S. O. E.

9:15	**"Occupational Offerings, Relevancy and Quality of Training, and New Methods and Techniques for Job Development"** Dr. Del Green, Executive Vice President, Littlejohn Associates, Inc., Washington, D. C.
	Questions and Reactions
10:30	Break
10:45	**"Strategies for Teaching Disadvantaged Youth"** Dr. William C. Boykin Institutional Self-Study Chairman Alcorn A & M College Lorman, Mississippi
	Questions and Reactions
12:00	Lunch
1:30 p.m.	**"Using Mathematics to Teach Self-Realization in Disadvantaged Children"** Dr. William F. Johntz, Director Project S. E. E. D. Berkeley, California
3:30	Break
3:45	Questions and Reactions
4:30	Adjournment

Wednesday, July 22

8:30 a.m.	**"Implications of Recent Research on Occupational and Educational Ambitions of Disadvantaged Rural Youth for Vocational Education"** Dr. William P. Kuvlesky Associate Professor of Sociology Texas A & M University
	Questions and Reactions
10:00	Break
10:30	**"Vocational Education and Community Development"** Dr. Harold F. Kaufman Research Professor of Sociology Mississippi State University
	Questions and Reactions

12:00	Lunch
1:30 p.m.	Small Group Tasks
3:00	Break
3:30	Small Group Tasks
4:30	Adjournment

Thursday, July 23

8:30 – 4:30 Vocational Education in a Community Setting – Field Trip (Tupelo, Mississippi)
Community Development Foundation Panel
Mr. Harry Martin

Friday, July 24

8:30 a.m.	**"Development of Human Resources of Youth Through a Vocationally Oriented Educational Program for Disadvantaged Families in Depressed Areas"** (Project R.E.D.Y.–Rural Education for Disadvantaged Youth) Dr. David Williams, Assistant Professor Agricultural Education Univeristy of Illinois
	Questions and Reactions
10:00	Break
10:30	**"Successful Innovative Techniques and Strategies in Programs for Training Disadvantaged Persons"** Mrs. Chrystine R. Shack Director of Program Development New Jersey Urban Schools Development Council Trenton, New Jersey
12:00	Lunch
1:30	Small Group Tasks
3:00	Break
3:30	Small Group Tasks
4:30	Adjournment

Monday, July 27

8:30	**"Integrated Career Development for Rural Areas"** Dr. Charles S. Winn, Curriculum Designer Utah State Board of Education
	Questions and Reactions
10:00	Break
10:30	**"Trends and Significant Differences in Indian Vocational Education"** Mr. John H. Peterson, Jr. Assistant Anthropologist Mississippi State University
	Questions and Reactions
12:00	Lunch
1:30	**"Successful Indian Training Techniques and Strategies Used in the Roswell (New Mexico) Employment Training Center"** Mr. Anthony F. Purley Assistant Director Roswell Employment Training Center Roswell, New Mexico
	Questions and Reactions
3:00	Break
3:30	Small Group Tasks
4:30	Adjournment

Tuesday, July 28

8:30 a.m.	**"Possible Changes in Attitudes of Disadvantaged Workers Due to Positive Job Experiences"** Dr. Joe M. Blackbourn Associate Professor of Guidance Mississippi State University
	Questions and Reactions
10:00	Break

10:30 **"Industrial Arts for Disadvantaged Elementary Children" – Panel**
Dr. Ctis Allen, Superintendent
Leflore County Schools
Greenwood, Mississippi

Questions and Reactions

12:00 Lunch

1:30 p.m. **"Rural Education Improvement Projects Sponsored by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools"**
Dr. John E. Codwell, Deputy Director
Education Improvement Projects of the SACS
Atlanta, Georgia

Questions and Reactions

3:00 Break

3:30 Small Group Tasks

4:30 Adjournment

Wednesday, July 29

8:30 a.m. **"Vocational Development and Maturation"**
Dr. Bert W. Westbrook
Associate Professor of Education
North Carolina State University

Questions and Reactions

10:00 Break

10:30 **"Programs for the Hard-Core Unemployed and Potential School Dropouts"**
Dr. Gene Bottoms
Associate Director
Division of Vocational Education
Georgia State Dept. of Education

Questions and Reactions

12:00 Lunch

1:30 p.m.	Small Group Tasks
3:00	Break
3:30	Preparation of Small Group Task Reports
4:30	Adjournment

Thursday, July 30

8:30 a.m.	**"Post-Training Occupational Behavior and Psychological Correlates"** Dr. Joseph E. Champagne Associate Director Center for Human Resources University of Houston
	Questions and Reactions
10:00	Break
10:15	Presentation of Small Group Reports
12:00	Lunch
1:30 p.m.	**"Summary of Institute"** Dr. Cayce Scarborough, Head Agricultural Education Department North Carolina State University
2:30	Break
3:00	**Evaluation of Institute** Dr. Charles H. Rogers Multiple Institute Coordinator North Carolina State University
3:30	**Institute Debriefing** Dr. James E. Wall Institute Director
4:00	Break
6:30	Banquet Dr. Duane Nielsen, Speaker U. S. Office of Education

Friday, July 31

6:00 a.m.	Transportation to Airport
10:15 a.m.	Transportation to Airport
12:00	Adjournment and departure of participants

* *

OUTCOMES:

Institute participants will derive formats of plans for vocational education programs for the rural disadvantaged. These formats should contain elements such as sources and techniques of gathering data about the disadvantaged; instructional materials and methods of teaching various groups of the disadvantaged; and assessment and evaluation methods for determining success of programs.

CONSULTANTS

Dr. Otis Allen, Superintendent (and panel)
Leflore County Schools
Greenwood, Mississippi

Dr. Joe M. Blackbourn
Department of Guidance Education
Mississippi State University

Dr. Gene Bottoms
Georgia State Department of Education
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. William C. Boykin
Institutional Self-Study Chairman
Alcorn A & M College
Lorman, Mississippi

Dr. Joseph E. Champagne, Associate Director
Center for Human Resources
University of Houston
Houston, Texas

Dr. John E. Codwell, Deputy Director
Education Improvement Project
Southern Association of Colleges and Schools

Dr. Del Green, Executive Vice President
Roy Littlejohn Associates, Inc.
Washington, D. C.

Dr. William F. Johntz, Director
Project S.E.E.D.
Berkeley, California

Dr. Harold F. Kaufman
Research Professor of Sociology
Mississippi State University

Miss Barbara Kemp
Senior Program Officer
U. S. Office of Education

Dr. William P. Kuvlesky
Associate Professor of Sociology
Texas A & M College

Mr. Harry Martin (and panel)
Community Development Foundation
Tupelo, Mississippi

Dr. Duane Nielsen
National Center for Educational Research and Development
U. S. Office of Education

Mr. Anthony Purley, Assistant Director
Roswell Employment Training Center
Roswell, New Mexico

Mrs. Chrystine R. Shack, Director of Program Development
New Jersey Urban Schools Development Council
Trenton, New Jersey

Dr. Bert W. Westbrook
Associate Professor, School of Education
North Carolina State University

Dr. David Williams, Assistant Professor
Agricultural Education
University of Illinois

Dr. Charles S. Winn, Curriculum Designer
Utah State Board of Education
Salt Lake City, Utah

INSTITUTE PERSONNEL:

Dr. James E. Wall (Institute Director) Assistant Dean, College of Education, Mississippi State University
Dr. James F. Shill (Institute Co-Director) Co-Director, Research Coordinating Unit, Mississippi State University
Dr. Roy S. Hinrichs, Associate Professor of Industrial Education, Mississippi State University
Dr. Jasper S. Lee, Assistant Director, Curriculum Coordinating Unit, Mississippi State University

Mr. Allen T. Steed, Research Associate, Research Coordinating Unit, Mississippi State University

Mrs. Peggy J. Ross, Assistant Sociologist, Social Science Research Center, Mississippi State University

Mr. John H. Peterson, Jr., Assistant Anthropologist, Mississippi State University

Mr. John Pelham, Research Associate, Research Coordinating Unit, Mississippi State University

Mr. Robert D. Sartin, Coordinator, Curriculum Coordinating Unit, Mississippi State University

APPENDIX B

EVALUATION

In addition to the evaluation reported here, the Center for Occupational Education at North Carolina State has conducted a more extensive evaluation of the entire multiple institutes program which is contained in the National Inservice Training Multiple Institutes for Vocational and Related Personnel in Rural Areas Final Report.

The summary evaluation was designed to determine whether the objectives of the multiple institutes program were attained. The objectives of the program implied that the following behavioral changes would take place in participants of the institutes.

1. The institute participants should view themselves as more capable of bringing about change at the end of the program than they did at the beginning of the program.

2. The institute participants should have more positive attitudes toward vocational education in rural areas at the end of the program than they had at the beginning of the program.

3. At the end of the parogram the participants should view the institute as having met its stated objectives.

4. After the participants leave the institute they should use the information obtained in the institute to bring about changes within the communities and states represented by the institutes.

To assess the attainment of the first objective, Rotter's Internal-External scale was administered to measure the extent to which the participants feel that they have the ability or skill to determine the outcome of their efforts to bring about changes in vocational education in rural areas. The instrument was administered at the beginning of each institute and again at the end of the institute to measure changes in participants' perception of their ability to bring about changes in vocational education in rural areas.

To measure the attainment of the second objective, an attitude scale was constructed to measure general attitudes toward vocational education in rural areas. The attitude scale, Attitude Toward Vocational Education in Rural Areas, was tried out on a representative sample of participants to establish its reliability. The instrument was administered at the beginning and again at the end of the institute to measure changes in the participants' general attitudes toward vocational education in rural areas.

To measure the attainment of the third objective the Formative Evaluation Measure was administered at the end of each of the institutes. The Formative Evaluation Measure provided a measure of the participants' evaluation of the program. The instrument included such items as the

extent to which the objectives of the institute were clear and realistic, the extent to which the participants accepted the purposes of the institute, whether the participants felt that the solutions to their problems were considered, whether the participants were stimulated to talk about the topics presented, etc.

To measure the attainment of the fourth objective, follow-up interviews were conducted with a sample of participants in 40 states, using a partially structured interview guide which has been used by the principal investigator in the evaluation of other conferences and institutes. The interview guides were structured to ascertain the extent to which the participants have implemented the project, program, or service which they planned during the institute.

In addition, the State Directors for Vocational Education in the 40 states were interviewed, using a specially prepared interview guide, to assess their perceptions of the impact of the institutes on changes in the vocational education program in rural areas. The interviews with State Directors will be directed primarily toward the assessment of the efficacy of the strategies for effecting changes which are to be developed as part of the project.

APPENDIX C

TASK FORCE TEAM DISCUSSION OUTLINE

I. The Population
   a. Who are the disadvantaged?
   b. What are their needs? (occupational, educational, social, etc.)
   c. What should we consider in order to develop and implement programs?
   d. What are the best methods of reaching, recruiting and retaining this group in programs?

II. Program Inputs
   a. What are the essential components of programs for disadvantaged?
   b. Are there other elements which may be variable?
   c. Are special materials and methods required?
   d. How important are supportive services?
   e. Do personnel working with these groups require special skills and/or training? If so, who can they be developed?

III. The Output
   a. How far should program objectives be designed to go after training is complete?
   b. What are the best determinants of job readiness?
   c. What type of counseling is most critical to successful placement and adjustment?

IV. Evaluation and Follow-up
   a. What factors should be considered in evaluating program effectiveness and using this information as feed-back?
   b. What methods can be employed to promote maximum job retention and advancement?

APPENDIX D

INSTITUTE IV

Task Force Groups

GROUP 1

French, Earl -- Group Leader
Abplanalp, Thomas J.
Clarke, Albert D.
James, Mrs. Betty
Jones, Decatur, Jr.
Sepesy, Robert L.
Shoemaker, Jim G.
Showmaker, Betty P.
Taylor, Jim
Thomas, Francies R.
Wynder, Minnie M.

GROUP 2

Sahakian, Harold -- Group Leader
Cottrell, Melvin G.
Dohrman, Wilbur Charles
Elkins, Virgil L.
Ruud, Josephine B.
Knebel, Earl H.
Lee, Ivan E.
Wyman, Ella S.
Yates, David M.
Hutchins, Walter

GROUP 3

Backman, David -- Group Leader
Kuykendall, Lloyd N.
Macon, Charles R.
Peterson, Roland Lee
Poulson, Virginia
Speicher, Richard N.
Todd, Cecil
Turner, James L.
Allen, Edgar

GROUP 4

Stark, Robert L. -- Group Leader
Enli, Olav R.
Faucette, Raymond F.
Fila, Richard H.
Payne, Mrs. Van
Powers, Bill G.
Rigdon, Robert E.
Vicarel, Daniel J.
Ward, Mrs. Maurice

GROUP 5

Bobbitt, John F. -- Group Leader
Cawood, Billy Joe
Crabbe, Lester F.
Giese, John H.
Goforth, Leonard
Haynie, Robert C.
Sampson, Lucille C.
Stutheit, Godfrey William, Jr.
Verbeek, John H.
Verschelden, Robert J.
Lloyd, Eleanor (1st wk.) Cobb, Carolyn (2nd wk.)

GROUP 6

Albracht, James -- Group Leader
Brantner, Seymour
Finley, Richard E.
Kraft, Ruth S.
Martinez, Fred J.
Popp, Janet E.
Reynolds, Kenneth R.
Seale, Carson T.
Sheldon, William O.
Turner, Mrs. James L.

INSTITUTE SUMMARIZER -- Dr. C. Cayce Scarborough
North Carolina

APPENDIX E

ROSTER OF PARTICIPANTS

INSTITUTE IV

MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERSITY - July 20-31, 1970

ABPLANALP, THOMAS J. (Mr.)
Superintendent of Schools
Duchesne County School District
Box M
Duchesne, Utah 84021

ALBRACHT, JAMES J. (Dr.)
Teacher Education
Kansas State University
822 Pierre
Manhattan, Kansas 66502

ALLEN, EDGAR
Department of Vocational Education
Dickey Hall, College of Education
University of Kentucky

BACKMAN, DAVID L. (Mr.)
Specialist, Disadvantaged & Handicapped Education
Oregon Board of Education
Community Colleges & Career Education
942 Lancaster Drive, NE
Salem, Oregon 97310

BAIRD, JOE (Mr.)
Teacher-Educator, M.D.T.A.
State Department of Education
1333 W. Camelback Road
Phoenix, Arizona 85013

BOBBITT, JOHN F. (Dr.)
Assistant Professor, Agricultural Education
Michigan State University
326 Erickson Hall
East Lansing, Michigan 48823

BRANTNER, SEYMOUR T. (Dr.)
Associate Professor of Industrial Education
246 Chambers Bldg.
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

CAWOOD, BILLY JOE (Mr.)
Regional Superintendent for Vocational Education
Dept. of Education
Harlan Area Vocational School
P. O. Box 936
Harlan, Kentucky 40831

CLARKE, ALBERT D. (Mr.)
Assistant Director & Curriculum Coordinator for Vocational Education
Steuben County Board of Cooperative Educational Services
Bath, New York 14810

COBB, CAROLYN (Miss) (second week only)
North Carolina Dept. of Community Colleges
112 West Lane Street
Raleigh, North Carolina 27602

COTTRELL, MELVIN G. (Mr.)
Assistant Director, School District # 1
404 South Wyoming
Butte, Montana 59701

CRABBE, LESLIE F. (Mr.)
Supervisor of Agricultural Education
Ohio Dept. of Education - Vocational Division
G-16, State Office Building
65 S. Front Street
Columbus, Ohio 43215

DOHRMAN, WILBUR C. (Mr.)
Supervisor of Instruction
Board of Education of St. Mary's Co.
Leonardtown, Maryland 20650

EKSTROM, BETTY
Lnae Community College
4000 E. 30th Avenue
Eugene, Oregon 97405

ELKINS, VIRGIL LYNN (Mr.)
Area Program Specialist
Florida Cooperative Extension Service
P.O. Box A-48 - Florida A & M University
Tallahassee, Florida 32307

ENLI, OLAV R. (Mr.)
Director, Occupational Program Development
Nicolet College and Technical Institute
333 Wilson Street
Rhinelander, Wisconsin 54501

FAUCETTE, RAYMOND F. (Mr.)
Director of Vocational Education Programs for Disadvantaged & Handicapped, State Dept. of Education
Arch Ford Education Building
Little Rock, Arkansas 72201

FILA, RICHARD H. (Mr.)
Supervisor, Occupational Education Planning
New York State Education Department
370 New Scotland Avenue
Albany, New York 12208

FINLEY, RICHARD E. (Dr.)
Director of Secondary Education
Mansfield State College
Mansfield, Pennsylvania 16933

FRENCH, EARL L. (Mr.)
Counselor
MDTA Pre-Vocational Training Center
422 Avenue C. East
Bismarck, North Dakota 58501

GIESE, JOHN HUGO (Mr.)
Director Adult and Continuing Education
Missoula Technical Center
110 Saranac
Missoula, Monaana 59801

GOFORTH, LEONARD (Mr.)
Instructor
Oak Ridge Associated
127 Latimer Road
Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37830

HAYNIE, ROBERT C. (Mr.)
Head Teacher Educator, Agricultural Education
A. M. & N. College
Box 47
Pine Bluff, Arkansas 71601

HUTCHINS, WALTER L. (Mr.)
Area Consultant
State Department of Education
Box 771
Jackson, Mississippi 39205

JONES, DECATUR (Mr.)
Director of Occupational Education
Montgomery Technical Institute
P. O. Drawer 487
Troy, North Carolina 27371

KNEBEL, EARL H. (Dr.)
Professor and Head of the Agricultural Ed. Dept.
Texas A & M University
1107 Ashburn
College Station, Texas 77840

KRAFT, RUTH S. (Mrs.)
Assistant Professor
South Dakota State University
Brookings, South Dakota 57006

KUYKENDALL, LLOYD N. (Mr.)
Regional Supervisor, Agricultural Education
State Department of Education
1408 Highland Avenue
Jackson, Tennessee 38301

LEE, IVAN EDWARD (Mr.)
Teacher Educator
University of Nevada
1690 Zephyr Way
Sparks, Nevada 89431

LLOYD, ELEANOR (Mrs.) (first week only)
North Carolina Community College
112 West Lane Street
Raleigh, North Carolina 27607

MACON, CHARLES R. (Mr.)
Coordinator, R.C.U. Four Corners Regional Project
Department of Vocational Education
Suite 114, 1222 W. Camelback Road
Phoenix, Arizona 85013

MARTINEZ, FRED J. (Mr.)
Specialist in Vocational Education for the Disadvantaged
Division of Instruction
State of Calif. Vocational Ed. Section
880 Perry Avenue
Montebello, California 90640

PAYNE, MRS. VAN
College of South Idaho
Box 1238
Twin Falls, Idaho 83301

PETERSON, ROLAND LEE (Dr.)
Assistant Professor - Agricultural Education
University of Nebraska
7531 Dotson Road
Lincoln, Nebraska 68505

POPP, JANET E. (Miss)
Associate Supervisor
New York State Education Department
454 Kenwood Avenue
Delmar, New York 12054

POULSON, VIRGINIA (Mrs.)
Assistant Professor
2234 Smith Family Living Center
Brigham Young University
Provo, Utah 84601

REYNOLDS, KENNETH R. (Mr.)
State Supervisor - Work Study and Special Needs Programs
State Department of Education
2330 Green Forest Drive
Decatur, Georgia 30032

RIGDON, ROBERT E. (Mr.)
Chief Supervisor
Disadvantaged & Handicapped
401 State House
Indianapolis, Indiana 46204

RUUD, JOSEPHINE B.
Chairman, Home Economics Education
College of Home Economics
North Dakota State University
Fargo, North Dakota 58102

SAHAKIAN, HAROLD (Mr.)
Supervisor, Field Services - Vocational Education
Wisconsin Board of Vocational, Technical & Adult Education
137 East Wilson Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53703

SAMPSON, LUCILLE C. (Mrs.)
Associate Professor
Business Administration Dept.
New Mexico Highlands University
1208 8th Street, Box 254
Las Vegas, New Mexico 87701

SCARBOROUGH, C. CAYCE (Dr.)
Professor & Head of Agricultural Education
Agricultural Education Dept., School of Education
North Carolina State University
Raleigh, North Carolina 27607

SEALE, CARSON T. (Mr.)
Director - Vocational Education
Sharkey-Issaquena Cons. School Dist.
Rolling Fork, Miss. 39159

SEPESY, ROBERT L. (Mr.)
Consultant, Disadvantaged & Handicapped
Special Program Unit-State Dept. of Education
405 Centennial Bldg.
Springfield, Illinois 62706

SHOEMAKER, JIM G. (Mr.)
Director, Southwest Mo. Area Vocational Technical School
Rt. 4, Vox 97
Neosho, Missouri 64850

SHOWMAKER, BETTY P. (Mrs.)
Coordinator, ABE
Vocational Technical Division-Boise State College
2608 Encanto
Boise, Idaho 83705

SPEICHER, RICHARD N. (Mr.)
Intermediate School District Superintendent
Eastern Upper Peninsula Intermediate School District
Box 278
Ruyard, Michigan 49780

STARK, ROBERT L. (Mr.)
Participant as EPDA fellow in Illinois Vocational Education Lea
735 South Mattis Avenue
Chapaign, Illinois 61820

STUTHEIT, GODFREY W. (Mr.)
Vocational Coordinator, Beggs Educ. Center
Escambia Co. Board of Public Instruction
1402 Poppy Ave.
Pensacola, Florida 32507

TAYLOR, JIM (Mr.)
Coordinator of Programs for the Disadvantaged
Twin Lakes Vocational-Technical School
Harrison, Arkansas 72601

THOMAS, FRANCIES R. (Miss)
Consultant, Special Needs Groups
Knott Building, Dept. of Education
Tallahassee, Florida 32304

TODD, CECIL (Mr.)
Education Program Administrator
Bureau of Indian Affairs, Cheyenne River Res.
Eagle Butte, South Dakota 57625

TURNER, DOROTHY (Mrs. J. L.)
Durham City Schools
Box 2246 - Chapel Hill & Cleveland Sts.
Durham, N.C. 27702

TURNER, JAMES LELAND (Mr.)
Director, Career and Occupational Education
Box 2246 - Durham City Schools
Chapel Hill & Cleveland Sts.
Durham, N.C. 27702

VERBECK, JOHN HENRY (Mr.)
Vocational Coordinator & Adult Director
127 Wesgaye
Gretna, Nebraska 68028

VERSCHELDEN, ROBERT JAMES (Mr.)
Director of Adult Education & Supervisor of MDTA Programs
Manhattan Area Vocational Technical School
3136 Dickens Avenue
Manhattan, Kansas 66502

VICAREL, DANIEL J. (Mr.)
Supervisor-Southeastern Ohio
State Dept. of Ed. - Div. of Voc. Ed.
65 S. Front St. - State Office Bldg., Room 611
Columbus, Ohio 43215

WARD, MAURICE B. (Mrs.)
Program Specialist for Career Development
University of Northern Colorado
Greeley, Colorado 80631

WYMAN, ELLA SLOAN (Miss)
District Consultant Consumer & Homemaking Education
Rutledge Bldg. - State Dept. of Education
1429 Senate St.
Columbia, South Carolina 29201

WYNDER, MINNIE M. (Mrs.)
State Supervisor
State Dept. of Public Instruction
Box 697
Dover, Delaware 19901

YATES, DAVID M. (Mr.)
Coordinator-Director (Industrial Arts Complex)
S.A.D. #40 Waldoboro, Maine
New Harbor, Maine 04554

APPENDIX F

BROCHURE:

JULY 20-31,1970

INSTITUTE

4-M

EXPANDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION CURRICULUMS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH AND ADULTS IN RURAL AREAS

NATIONAL INSERVICE TRAINING MULTIPLE INSTITUTES FOR VOCATIONAL AND RELATED PERSONNEL IN RURAL AREAS

MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERSITY

JULY 20-31,1970

INSTITUTE

EXPANDING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION CURRICULUMS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED YOUTH AND ADULTS IN RURAL AREAS

NATIONAL INSERVICE TRAINING MULTIPLE INSTITUTES FOR VOCATIONAL AND RELATED PERSONNEL IN RURAL AREAS

MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERSITY

255

The institute will focus on the needs of the rural disadvantaged, including their life styles, aspirations and problems of recruitment and retention in training programs. In determining content and methods for training the rural disadvantaged, such topics as basic education, occupational training and articulation of training content and methods will be discussed. In the final stages, the institute will cover post-training procedures and structures necessary to satisfactory occupational adjustment. Follow-up, relocation and adjustment counseling will receive special emphasis.

Participants' knowledge of the needs of the rural disadvantaged will be strengthened through an interdisciplinary approach to the understanding of rural problems. Furthermore, the institute will create awareness of the value for post-training follow-up and intensive occupational adjustment counseling.

Each participant will enter a simplified planning process at the beginning of the institute and will emerge two weeks later with a planned format of suggested procedures and structures for vocational education programs for segments of the rural disadvantaged. Work group sessions in consultation with the institute staff and consultants will be especially effective in achieving the objectives of the institute. It is hoped that participants will attend all sessions.

Schedule

Sessions are planned as follows:

8:30 a.m. – 4:30 p.m., Monday through Friday, July 20-25, 1970;
8:30 a.m. – 4:30 p.m., Monday through Thursday, July 27-30, 1970;
8:30 a.m. – 12:00 Noon, Friday, July 31, 1970.
6:30 p.m., Thursday, July 30 – Banquet

Travel and Lodging

Participants may choose whatever method of travel they prefer and will be reimbursed for tourist class air fare or automobile mileage, whichever is the lesser of the two amounts.

Those selecting to travel by air will be sent a round-trip ticket. Flights will arrive at the Columbus, Mississippi, airport on the afternoon of July 19, and transportation will be provided from the airport to the campus. A university representative will be at the airport to lend assistance as needed.

All participants should plan to arrive at Mississippi State University on the afternoon of July 19 and should check into Cresswell Residence Hall by 11:00 p.m. if campus housing is desired. Persons not choosing to stay on campus should arrive in time for registration on July 20 between 8:30 and 10:00 a.m.

Mississippi State University does not discriminate on the grounds of race, color, or national origin.

Return trips may be planned to begin on the afternoon of Friday, July 31. Tickets for persons traveling by plane will be scheduled to depart from the Columbus airport at that time. Transportation will be provided from the campus to the airport.

Campus housing will be provided in Cresswell Residence Hall, a modern, air-conditioned facility. Linens will be furnished, and laundry and dry cleaning facilities are available on campus. Special arrangements will be required for participants bringing family members. Accommodations can be arranged at a reasonable rate of approximately $6.00 per night for each additional person.

Campus dining facilities include the university cafeteria and Union snack bar. There are also nearby restaurants in Starkville. Participants will receive a stipend of $72 for meals, and meals should average about $3.00 per day.

Clothing

July in Mississippi is usually hot and humid with temperatures in the upper 90's. Rain showers may occur in the afternoons. Participants will, therefore, want to choose clothing suitable for such weather.

Recreation

The university swimming pool will be open to participants and their families. There is also a university golf course. Bowling lanes and other recreational facilities are available in the University Union. All types of recreational equipment can be obtained from the office of the athletic department.

Graduate Credit

Graduate credit can be received for participation in the institute. Arrangements for credit can be made after arrival on campus.

Mississippi State University, the Magnolia State's largest and friendliest university, is located at State College, Mississippi, in the northeast portion of the state. Nearby Starkville offers shops, theaters and churches. A number of ante-bellum homes are featured in Starkville and nearby Columbus and West Point. Mississippi prides itself on being the hospitality state.

For Additional Information Contact:
Dr. James E. Wall, Director
Institute IV
Mississippi Research Coordinating Unit
P. O. Drawer JW
State College, Mississippi 39762

APPENDIX G

Evaluation Instrument

FORM 3

NOTE: Please Do Not Sign Your Name

Key: SA (Strongly Agree, A (Agree), ? (Undecided), D (Disagree), SD (Strongly Disagree)

1.	The Objectives of this institute were clear to me.	SA	A	?	D	SD
2.	The objectives of this institute were not realistic.	SA	A	?	D	SD
3.	The participants accepted the purposes of this institute.	SA	A	?	D	SD
4.	The objectives of this institute were not the same as my objectives.	SA	A	?	D	SD
5.	I have not learned anything new.	SA	A	?	D	SD
6.	The material presented seemed valuable to me.	SA	A	?	D	SD
7.	I could have learned as much by reading a book.	SA	A	?	D	SD
8.	Possible solutions to my problems were not considered.	SA	A	?	D	SD
9.	The information presented was too elementary.	SA	A	?	D	SD
10.	The speakers really knew their subject.	SA	A	?	D	SD
11.	I was stimulated to think about the topics presented.	SA	A	?	D	SD
12.	We worked together well as a group.	SA	A	?	D	SD
13.	The group discussions were excellent.	SA	A	?	D	SD
14.	There was little time for informal conversation.	SA	A	?	D	SD
15.	I had no opportunity to express my ideas.	SA	A	?	D	SD
16.	I really felt a part of this group.	SA	A	?	D	SD
17.	My time was well spent.	SA	A	?	D	SD
18.	The institute met my expectations.	SA	A	?	D	SD
19.	Too much time was devoted to trivial matters.	SA	A	?	D	SD
20.	The information presented was too advanced.	SA	A	?	D	SD
21.	The content was not readily applicable to the important problems in this area.	SA	A	?	D	SD
22.	Theory was not related to practice	SA	A	?	D	SD
23.	The printed materials that were provided were very helpful.	SA	A	?	D	SD
24.	The schedule should have been more flexible.	SA	A	?	D	SD

25. As a result of your participation in this institute, do you plan to modify either your present or future work?

YES___ NO ____

If yes, please describe the nature of the most important of such modifications and the activities which will be affected.

_____

_____

_____

26. As a result of your contacts with the participants and consultants at this institute, have you decided to seek some continuing means of exchanging information with any of them, i.e., to establish some continuing relation with a participant(s) and/or consultant(s), for the purpose of information exchange? YES____ NO _____

If yes, what types of information can the consultant or participant contribute that would be helpful to your work?

_____

FORM 3 (continued)

27. To what extent were the objectives of this institute attained?

28. In your opinion, what were the major strengths of this institute?

29. In your opinion, what were the major weaknesses of this institute?

30. If you were asked to conduct an institute similar to this one, what would you do differently from what was done in this institute?

31. Additional comments about institute

32. If you had it to do over again, would you apply for this institute which you have just completed? YES____ NO ____ UNCERTAIN _____

33. If an institute such as this is held again, would you recommend to others like you that they attend?
YES _____ NO _____ UNCERTAIN _____

Table 1. Frequency Distribution and Mean Values for Participants' Evaluation of the Institute

	Frequency Distribution					
	SA	A	?	D	SD	Mean
Key: SA (Strongly Agree), A (Agree), ? (Undecided), D (Disagree) SD (Strongly Disagree)						
1. The objectives of this Institute were clear to me.	13	38	1	1	0	4.19
2. The objectives of this Institute were not realistic.	0	0	1	41	8	1.84
3. The participants accepted the purposes of this Institute.	8	41	3	0	1	4.04
4. The objectives of this Institute were not the same as my objectives.	0	4	4	40	5	2.13
5. I have not learned anything new.	0	0	0	29	24	1.55
6. The material presented seemed valuable to me.	16	36	0	1	0	4.26
7. I could have learned as much by reading a book.	0	1	1	32	19	1.70
8. Possible solutions to my problems were not considered.	0	5	5	37	5	2.29
9. The information presented was too elementary.	0	1	1	39	12	1.83
10. The speakers really knew their subject.	11	40	0	1	1	4.11
11.. I was stimulated to think about the topics presented.	15	38	0	0	0	4.28
12. We worked together well as a group.	24	26	0	3	0	4.34
13. The group discussions were excellent.	20	27	4	2	0	4.23
14. There was little time for informal conversation	0	6	0	30	17	1.91
15. I had no opportunity to express my ideas.	0	8	0	28	17	1.98
16. I really felt a part of this group.	15	36	0	1	1	4.19
17. My time was well spent.	19	32	1	1	0	4.30
18. The Institute met my expectations.	13	38	2	0	0	4.21
19. Too much time was devoted to trivial matters.	0	1	1	37	14	1.79
20. The information presented was too advanced.	0	1	1	37	13	1.81

Table 1. (continued)

	Frequency Distribution					
	SA	A	?	D	SD	Mean
21. The content was not readily applicable to the important problems in this area.	0	3	4	34	12	1.96
22. Theory was not related to practice.	0	6	4	37	5	2.21
23. The printed materials that were provided were very helpful.	16	34	2	1	0	4.23
24. The schedule should have been more flexible.	1	4	2	39	7	2.11